

**Gordon Institute  
of Business Science**  
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# Motivators of learning and learning transfer in the workplace

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## **Abstract**

Motivating employees to learn and transfer their learning to their jobs is an important activity to ensure that employees - and the organisation - continuously adapt, evolve and survive in this highly turbulent environment. The literature shows that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators influence learning and learning transfer, and the extent of influence could be different for different people. This research sets out to explore and identify the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors that drive learning and learning transfer.

A qualitative study in the form of focus groups was conducted. Three focus groups were conducted in which a total of 25 middle managers from two different multinational companies participated. Content and frequency analysis were used to identify the key themes from the focus group discussion.

The outcome of the study resulted in the identification of the key intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors that drive learning and learning transfer. The findings have been used to develop a Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework indicating that individual intrinsic motivators are at the core of driving motivation to learn and transfer learning. It also indicates which training design and work environment factors to focus on in support of intrinsic motivation to learn and transfer learning in the workplace for middle managers. It is hoped that the outcome of this research will contribute to catalysing learning and learning transfer for middle managers to achieve higher organisational effectiveness.

### **Keywords**

Motivation to learn, motivation to transfer, transfer of learning, individual characteristics, training design, work environment

## Declaration

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction to the research problem

## 1.1 Introduction

Motivation is “the process of developing intent, energy, determination, and action to carry out certain behaviour” (Hunter, 2012, p. 139). Motivation is the primary learning skill that drives high-quality learning performance (Griffin, MacKewn, Moser, & VanVuren, 2013). Understanding what motivates a person to learn and transfer learning is therefore an important issue for organisations and for educational programme developers.

Motivation types are categorised as intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation emanates from the individual and extrinsic motivation is fuelled by the relationship between the individual and activities (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research has shown that intrinsic motivation which exist within individuals are different for different people, and while one can rely on intrinsic motivation for some activities, motivation must be promoted extrinsically for other activities to achieve desired outcomes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Organisations and educational programme developers should be aware of and carefully consider which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors to use in order to enhance the activities that support and enable learning and learning transfer of their employees and delegates.

While people are motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic factors, behaviour caused by intrinsic (opposed to extrinsic) reasons result in different performance and experiences for people (Ryan & Deci, 2000). A lack of understanding of what motivates employees might reduce or even eliminate the positive influence and effect of an individual’s natural intrinsic motivation to learn and transfer learning (Tabernerero & Hernandez, 2011). Deciding which activities to use to promote and drive intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to learn and transfer learning are further complicated because both motivation and learning are individualised processes (Corr, DeYoung, & McNaughton, 2013).

Another aspect that impacts a person’s motivation to learn and transfer learning is his/her situation – which could have a direct or indirect impact on motivation. Because of differing personality traits, people respond differently in different situation and peoples’ responses may differ from each other even when experiencing the same situation (Corr et al., 2013). As a person’s situation changes, his/her motivation will change accordingly to satisfy the need arising

from the new situation. As work environments continuously change to keep up with external demands, a person's situation could change as a result, changing the source of motivation required. Because needs differ across people and situations, a one-size-fit-all approach to motivating employees to learn and transfer learning in the work environment is often not sufficient. A more holistic understanding of motivation from different perspectives combined into an encompassing conceptual model for motivating learning and learning transfer in the workplace will be beneficial.

Understanding which motivators are required and perhaps missing to enable employees from learning and transferring their learning in the workplace would be valuable source of reference for educational programme developers and human resource managers. Management's approaches to motivating and sustaining their employees' motivation to learn and transfer learning can be more effective if they have an integrative model of motivation to guide them. The more educational programme developers understand and experience what motivates learners, the more learning programmes can promote good learning (Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Anderman, 2013) as educational programme developers use this understanding to design and incorporate the pre-, during, and post-programme activities that will increase attendees' motivation to learn and transfer learning.

Human resource managers could be guided on the learning and development policies and practices to be put in place, as well as the learner support structures, mechanisms and processes required (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011) to support and increase motivation to learn and transfer learning. Learner support is an important aspect to sustain motivation as it facilitates the extent to which an individual will test and apply the new knowledge and skills that they have acquired back in their job (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011), but organisations often fail to realise the importance thereof and/or put the relevant learner support structure in place. Not all people require support to apply their new knowledge and skill, but it certainly supports the learning process when organisations have mechanisms in place which assist individuals to apply their learning (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011). This display of high commitment and implementation of supportive practices by the human resources function will create a mutually beneficial environment resulting in employees who in turn exert higher levels of discretionary behaviour (McClellan & Collins, 2011).

It is therefore important for organisations who want to remain competitive to give more attention to learning and learning transfer in order to develop highly skilled people that will contribute to the organisation's future performance (Kirwan, 2009). Kirwan (2009, p. 11) quotes Senge (1990) who suggests the creation of a learning organisation which he describes as "a place where people are continually expanding their capacity to achieve results, and where new thinking is constantly being encouraged and nurtured". To achieve a learning organisation employees must be provided with the tools and support to learn from their mistakes and experiences, to solve problems and to apply their learning in a quick and efficient manner within the organisation (Kirwan, 2009 citing Garvin, 1993). Other benefits for the organisation from being intrinsically motivated to learn and transfer learning include motivated employees' who work to achieve what is in the best interest of the organisation (Manzoor, 2012). Learning and learning transfer helps employees to adapt, innovate, change and perform in a tough and complex business environment (Crouse, Doyle, & Young, 2011), while a stimulating learning environment ensures employee retention (Kyndt, Raes, Dochy, & Janssens, 2012).

Billions are also reported to be spent to develop and improve employees competence and performance (Johnson, Garrison, Hernez-Broome, Fleenor, & Steed, 2012; Stanhope, Pond, & Surface, 2013). According to the Forbes 2014 Corporate Learning Factbook, United States spending on corporate training was over \$70 Billion and worldwide it was over \$130 Billion (Bersin, 2014). In South Africa, organisations spend 4 percent (on average) of payroll on learning and development which is considerably higher than the legislative requirement (Skills Development Levies Act) of 1 percent (Probart, 2014). Given this enormous investment in learning and development activities, it is fair to assume that organisations would expect to reap the benefits of improved performance as a result of employees transferring the new knowledge and skills that they have learned. Yet several authors' report that the transfer of learning conducted on employees across industries (for example, information technology, service sector and automobile industry) remains low and is estimated to be 40 percent immediately following training, 25 percent after 6 months and 15 percent after a year (Donovan & Darcy, 2011; Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013). This will probably be the same for middle-managers from multi-national organisations who attended formal leadership development programmes. Employees who are not motivated to learn and apply their learning back in the workplace are wasting the money invested in the learning programme and organisations lose out on the potential benefits that were expected as a result of their employees attending the programme.

Motivational factors that drive learning and learning transfer are vast and encompass models, reviews of literature and empirical studies (Merriam & Leahy, 2005), and are characterised by mixed, and in some cases inconsistent findings (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Grohmann, Beller, & Kauffeld, 2014). Mixed findings have been reported for intrinsic versus extrinsic motivators, and motivation to transfer for example (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). The reason for this might be because of the different types of research design and samples used, as well as the learning and development programme and transfer assessments used (Merriam & Leahy, 2005). Also each research study focuses on only one or two independent variables at a time to assess their impact or correlation with learning transfer (Merriam & Leahy, 2005) culminating in an array of independent, loose standing factors of learning and learning transfer.

However, researchers have pursued the integration of these factors, proposing tools like the Learning Transfer Styles Inventory (Bates, Holton III, & Hatala, 2012) and frameworks like the conceptual framework of traditional learning transfer (Kontoghiorghes, 2004) and the Baldwin and Ford (1988) model. But these tools and frameworks only provide an understanding of what the factors are and not how the entire system of variables (individual characteristics, training design and work environment) influence training transfer (Grohmann et al., 2014). There is still a need for an integrative model of motivation and behaviour whereby the various theories of motivation are combined in a meaningful and understandable manner (Lungescu, Salanta, & Crisan, 2012; Ryan, 2011; Vancouver, Weinhardt, & Vigo, 2014).

Most of the transfer of learning research focuses on training and skill learning rather than executive education programmes and is measured using participant self-assessment surveys rather than interviews and/or observations in the workplace (Culpin, Eichenberg, Hayward, & Abraham, 2014; Merriam & Leahy, 2005). Skills are often easier to see and to measure tangibly than intangible 'soft' skills learned on a leadership development programme for example (Merriam & Leahy, 2005). Also self-assessment questionnaires not only restrict participants to select between pre-determined variables (instead of identifying new variables) (Merriam & Leahy, 2005) it also results in participants reporting inflated results of variable relationships (Blume et al., 2010). In-depth interviews could uncover factors and interactions not considered for and incorporated into pre-designed instruments (Merriam & Leahy, 2005).

In summary, successful organisations understand that for the organisation to survive and thrive, its employees must be adaptable. Learning and learning transfer are critical activities that enable adaptability and it is therefore imperative for organisations to understand how employees learn and transfer learning, and which factors contribute to driving learning and a supportive learning and learning transfer environment in the workplace (Kyndt et al., 2012).

## **1.2 Objectives of the research**

Motivation is one of the key ingredients that drives people to do the things they do (Hunter, 2012). It is the catalyst for effective learning and performance, and organisational change and transformation (Hunter, 2012). Learning and using what has been learned during the formal learning programme in one's job (referred to as transfer of learning), are key elements for ensuring that employees and organisations remain agile and responsive to the changes in the environment. Being motivated to learn and transfer learning is imperative because it ensures that employees keep up with, perform and remain competitive in the fast and ever-changing business environment (Kyndt et al., 2012). However, organisations still mostly struggle to achieve optimal transfer of learning levels from their employees after they return from attending a formal learning programme.

Although the research to identify factors that drive learning and learning transfer have been extensive, it is suggested that further factors may exist (Donovan & Darcy, 2011). Bates et al. (2012) contend that a practical approach and understanding of the core set of individual, training design and work environment factors which are critical for successful transfer can also be investigated further.

The purpose of this study is to investigate which intrinsic and extrinsic motivators drive learning and learning transfer in the workplace. The focus will be on middle managers whose increased responsibility and expectations require them to develop their leadership skills in order to lead and manage increasing change in increasing globalised organisations. Furthermore, the South African context may offer additional viewpoints since previous research focus mostly on the developed world. From the findings the researcher hopes to develop a practical framework which could guide educational programme developers and the human resource managers on which motivational drivers to focus on in order to increase the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

of employees. It is hoped that this framework will help to catalyse the employees' learning and learning transfer, with the aim of achieve higher organisational effectiveness.

To achieve this outcome the following objectives will be addressed:

1. Determine which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to learn
2. Determine which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to transfer learning
3. Determine how middle managers are sustaining the transfer of learning back into the workplace



## Chapter 2: Literature review

### 2.1 Introduction

The literature reviewed in this section defines and describes the concepts of motivation, learning and learning transfer including:

- What is motivation and why is it important for learning and learning transfer
- What is learning and how people learn
- The transfer of learning concept and the importance of transfer
- Predictors of transfer
- Motivational frameworks proposed to drive learning and learning transfer

Aspects that facilitate learning-organisational performance include a person's motivation to learn; the level to which the learning outcomes are aligned to the organisation's needs; and the extent to which learning is transferred and applied in the job (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011). Learning and learning transfer will be the focus of this study and can be influenced by many factors, personal and organisational (Kyndt et al., 2012). This chapter attempted to define the research concepts namely motivation, learning, and learning transfer; and then investigated factors through the lens of motivational theory that enable learning and learning transfer.

## **2.2 What is motivation and why is it important for learning and learning transfer**

The desire to understand the concept of motivation has resulted in a vast amount of information covering motivation theory, needs theory, and process theory to be produced. In his paper, Hunter (2012) reviewed the history of motivational research and explained that early research (in the 1940s) focussed on extrinsic factors that influence motivation to perform in the workplace. Research then gradually moved towards understanding intrinsic attributes of motivation which was hypothesised by Murray, Maslow and McLelland, to be influenced by a person's needs. In the 1980s motivation theories were extended and refined to learning theories and other work-and performance related theories, and recently motivation in the workplace which are influenced by feelings, moods and emotions, as well as research attempting to integrate the various theories of motivation have been explored (Hunter, 2012). This section of the literature review is largely based on the comprehensive review of motivational theory conducted by Hunter (2012) in his article "How motivation really works: Towards an emotion-motivation paradigm". The first part of this section provides a general definition of motivation and a brief history of motivational research, before unpacking the motivational concepts identified to be applicable for this study.

### **2.2.1 Definition of motivation**

Motivation is "the process of developing intent, energy, determination and action to carry out certain behaviour" (Hunter, 2012, p. 139). The term motivation is derived from the Latin word 'movere' and the word 'motivate' meaning to move, to push, or influence (Cinar, Bektas, & Aslan, 2011; Manzoor, 2012). A motivated person is moved to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2000) therefore motives push people to think and act in a certain way in order to satisfy their needs or achieve a desired task (Cinar et al., 2011; Hunter, 2012).

Although unconscious, motives have a powerful influence on an individual's thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Hunter, 2012) and energise the individual towards achieving an end (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In order to motivate a person one needs to provide that person with a motive through the process of motivation. People differ in their types and strength of motivation (Hunter, 2012). Because people are driven by motives specific to themselves and their unique personality, different people will have different kinds of motivation, at different amounts (Ryan &

Deci, 2000) and they will act in a different way to the different stimulus applied (Tampu, 2015). The study notes that different things motivate people differently.

Motivation is also situational and relational (Hunter, 2012). Situational refers to the personal situation and circumstances which influences a person's motivation, for example, a person who has a lot of money will not necessarily be motivated by money incentives (Hunter, 2012). Relational refers to the fact that most of what we do and learn is influenced by our social environment and in our relationship with others (Hunter, 2012). Empowerment and recognition, and positive performance feedback for example have a positive effect on employee motivation (Manzoor, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2000), while negative performance feedback diminishes motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). What is important to note is that a person's personal motivation will be influenced by his/her situation and relation to the activity.

### **2.2.2 History of motivational research**

During Greek times, philosophers were interested in hedonism (pleasure being the most important outcome) as primary motivation (Hunter, 2012). In the twentieth century, psychoanalysts and psychologists took in interest in researching the instinctive rather than rational dimensions of motivation where basic and social emotions played a role (Hunter, 2012). This sparked the Human Relations School of Thought (which view human motivation as a complex issue) contributing to the development of motivation theories related to human needs and motivation, and how the unique range of human needs differ and influence how people behave (Hunter, 2012).

The Hawthorne Studies conducted by Elton Mayo from 1924 to 1932 brought about the realisation that people are not only motivated by money, shifting motivational research to focus on the needs and motivation of employees (Cinar et al., 2011). Henry Murray believed that a person's reason for doing things were driven by his/her unique range of needs, with some needs dominating others. He created the 'Murray's five category of needs' (ambition needs; needs to defend status; needs related to social power; and social affection needs) and the Thematic Appreciation Test which is used to test people's needs and motives (Hunter, 2012).

Abraham Maslow promoted the idea that people were motivated by higher needs and developed 'Maslow's hierarchy of needs' consisting of physiological needs; safety needs;

affiliation and love; self-esteem needs; and need for self-actualisation (Hunter, 2012). Maslow's theory identified the following three concepts: that people always want things; a satisfied need no longer serves as a motivator of behaviour; and human needs can be categorised in a hierarchy of importance (Cinar et al., 2011). Accordingly the hierarchy of needs are sequential so once a lower level need has been satisfied it no longer serve as a motivator and the individual's motivation is generated by the challenge to meet the need at the next level (Hunter, 2012).

David McClelland, concerned with achievement and power in organisations, identified an achievement model which links the concept of motivation to achievement and power in the workplace (Hunter, 2012). According to his achievement model, all people have the need for achievement, need for affiliation, and need for status. However, at any given time one of these needs will dominate the other two and the dominant need will reflect in the person's behaviour (Hunter, 2012). This corresponds to the social, esteem and self-realisation needs of Maslow's hierarchy (Cinar et al., 2011).

Motivational theory research in the 1980s focussed on expanding, refining and applying existing motivational theories to an array of other theories like learning and training, job design and rewards, goal-setting, and personality and cross-cultural studies before it slowed down in 1990s (Hunter, 2012). Recent studies focus on the influence of feelings, moods and emotions to explain motivation in the workplace and the development of a few conceptual models.

The discussion so far serves to show that motivational theory is grounded in the concept of 'needs' and these theories are referred to as content theories as it emphasises the factors that motivate employees (Cinar et al., 2011). The work by Henry and McClelland are concerned with behaviour and explaining how dominance of one need over another will influence a person's behaviour. It is useful to answer questions about why a person behaves the way they do (Hunter, 2012). Maslow's hierarchy explains where a person's source of motivation comes from and although it has been criticised (Hunter, 2012), it is still a good model to use to answer questions on which need is driving a person.

Because this study will explore what drives a person to learn and to transfer the learning to the workplace an understanding of needs theory and how it influences and drives a person's behaviour is important. As can be seen from the study by Colquitt, LePine, and Noe (2000) who

developed an integrative theory of training motivation by incorporating a few groups of motivational theories such as need-motive-value theories and expectancy theory with the aim to explain how individual and situational characteristics influence training motivation and learning. However the integrative training motivation model provides a comprehensive and systematic approach for the evaluation of human resource development (Donovan & Darcy, 2011) which is important to note but is beyond the scope of this research.

### 2.2.3 Types of motivation

Self-determination theory represents a broad framework for the study of human motivation as it builds onto the idea that motivation is derived from an individual's interest to satisfy a particular need (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The sub-theories of self-determination theory are briefly outlined in Table 1 below. Self-determination theory distinguishes between two types of motivation namely intrinsic and extrinsic and looks at factors that facilitate or undermine these (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

**Table 1: Mini-theories of SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000; selfdeterminationtheory.org).**

Theory	Psychological need satisfied	Description
CET Cognitive Evaluation Theory	Competence Automation	Address effects of social contexts on intrinsic motivation. Consider how external factors like reward impact intrinsic motivation and interests
OIT Organismic Integration Theory	Autonomy and relatedness	Concerned with social context that enhance internalisation - the more internalised the extrinsic motivation the more autonomous the person
COT Causality Orientations Theory	Autonomy competence	Describes and assesses three types of causality orientations: Autonomy orientation, Control orientation, and Impersonal amotivated orientation
BPNT Basic Psychological Needs Theory	Autonomy Competence Relatedness	Claims that autonomy, competence and relatedness results in psychological well-being and optimal functioning
GCT Goal Content Theory	Competence	Intrinsic and extrinsic goals and their impact on motivation and wellness
RMT Relationships Motivation Theory	Relatedness Autonomy Competence	Looks at relatedness and relationships

### 2.2.3.1 Intrinsic motivation

“Intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable (Cinar et al., 2011, p. 692). Acting on one’s inherent interest is what allows people to grow and develop because they are acting to satisfy their curiosity by learning something new (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The importance of intrinsic motivation was discovered by accident in the 1920s (Hunter, 2012) and has since become a very important concept for motivation as a natural wellspring of learning which can be systemically catalysed, resulting in high-quality learning and creativity (Ryan & Deci, 2000). If a person does something for the fun or challenge thereof and because they find it inherently interesting or enjoyable, they are acting from an intrinsic motivational base (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This internal drive emanates from a person’s head and heart (Manzoor, 2012) and therefore one will curiously explore even when a reward is not offered (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Some activities will intrinsically motivate people while other activities will not (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Accordingly studies have focussed on what task characteristics make an activity interesting and what basic needs are satisfied by intrinsic motivational behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Experiential research has focussed on behavioural measures of intrinsic motivation (free choice measure) and domain focussed measures of intrinsic motivation for school for example (through the use of self-report of interest and enjoyment of the activity) (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Cinar et al. (2011) found that intrinsic factors are more effective on employee motivation than extrinsic factors. Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Ford (2014) also mention that intrinsically motivated learners will engage more actively in learning whereas extrinsically motivated learners take a more passive approach.

Several studies have established a negative correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Taberero & Hernandez, 2011) which means that when extrinsic motivation is increased, intrinsic motivation reduces or diminishes. Research findings of environmental effects on intrinsic motivation demonstrated that the use of extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation because the reward shift people from an internal to an external perceived locus of causality (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This is referred to as the ‘undermining effect’ where the presentation of an external reward for a task which is enjoyable will reduce the intrinsic motivation for the task (Cerasoli et al., 2014). It was also found that any factor experienced as a

controller of behaviour for example threats, deadlines, directives and competitive pressure undermines intrinsic motivation, whereas choice and opportunity for self-direction enhances intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). From this discussion it is clear that the strategies employed to enable learning and learning transfer must be considered carefully because it could diminish a person's natural intrinsic motivation which is more powerful form of motivation than extrinsic motivation.

From this section two conditions arise for a person to be intrinsically motivated: doing something because it is interesting, and/or doing something because of the satisfaction a person gains from doing it (Ryan & Deci, 2000). One or both of these conditions might be necessary for learning and learning transfer to take place together with the person having a sense of choice and autonomy over his/her own learning and learning transfer.

### **2.2.3.2 Extrinsic motivation**

Not all activities are inherently interesting; therefore extrinsic motivation is also an important construct (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity for its instrumental value, which means that a person is satisfied not because of the activity, but rather from the extrinsic consequences to which the activity leads (Cinar et al., 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Driven by instrumental value a person will intentionally do something if it is good because it provides the means to acquire something else of value. Instrumentalities motivate when a person feels that you have a choice and you personally approves and accepts the value of the task, instead of merely complying because you were externally propelled into action (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Manzoor (2012) list the following instrumentalities that affect employee motivation: money to motivate employees to higher performance; rewards to influence individual or group behaviour; leaders that raise their follower to higher levels of motivation; empowerment to build a win-win connection between organisation and employee; trust; and staff training as a strategy for motivating workers.

Extrinsic motivators which makes a person feel like they are externally forced into action, will probably inhibit high-quality learning to take place because the person will conduct the action with resentment, resistance and disinterest (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, extrinsic motivation used correctly, has the power to motivate action if the person feel like he/she had a choice to accept or reject the action to be taken (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

People learn for different reasons and understanding what motivates people to learn and how this influence the learning and learning transfer process will provide insights for motivational process theories. This research aims to identify the type of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which enhances learning and learning transfer.

## **2.3 What is learning and how people learn**

Learning is central to every human being. We learn how to talk, how to walk, how to engage, how to work and how to 'be' from the time we were born. The learning process often occurs naturally as soon as we realise that there are things that we need to know but we don't (Dehler & Welsh, 2014) or when there is a mismatch between our intentions and outcomes at work or in life (Hernes & Irgens, 2013). However, learning is a complex cognitive process (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013). It involves both meaning making and understanding (Dehler & Welsh, 2014). It is an "embedded and embodied process...more than is outlined in most literature" (Snoeren, Niessen, & Abma 2015, p. 148). In this section the researcher presents some of the learning theories and approaches so that one can start to understand the learning process and an individual's approach to learning.

### **2.3.1 Learning theories**

The four broad theories that try to explain what learning is are: behavioural theories, cognitive theories, constructivist theories, and sociocultural theories (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013). Each of the four dimensions of learning are important for learning and teaching and failure to consider each part for the learning process may result in lower-quality learning (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013).

The behaviourist perspective is concerned with the acquisition of new behaviour through conditioning or social learning or learning programmes where specific skills and behaviours need to be learned (Smith, 2003; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013). Thus, it is important that there is an observable change in a person's behaviour as a result of new skills or behaviours learned (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013).



The cognitivist approach, which links to Gestalt theory, looks beyond behaviour to consider the individual and what is happening inside the head of the learner (Smith, 2003; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013). The focus is on how people think, learn concepts and solve problems (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013). The important consideration is that learning is a personal process where an individual continually strives to make sense from their learning, experiences, understanding and beliefs (Dehler & Welsh, 2014) and that learner motivation is an important issue underpinning this process (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013).

Constructivism theory build on the idea that not all learners are the same and that different people learn differently by promoting the idea that individuals learn by creating and constructing knowledge through a process of exploration, discovery and problem based learning - emphasising learning as an individualised and self-directed process (Devries & Zan, 2003; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013).

Later researchers realised that although individualised, learning is a situated activity that happens not only inside, but also outside work and across contexts and cultures and this lead to the creation of sociocultural or social constructivist theories which acknowledge the centrality of social and cultural contexts in learning (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013).

Although learning theories have shifted from looking at how and why people learn from an outside-in perspective (behavioural theory) to how and why people learn from an inside-out perspective (sociocultural theory), all four pillars are important for consideration because an individual needs to understand and makes sense of the content (constructivist), remember what he understood (cognitive), and then practice and apply his/her new skills to make it a permanent part of his performance (behavioural) in his/her work environment/context (sociocultural) (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013).

The four theories above explained what learning is. Andragogy, an adult learning theory, explains how adults learn. Malcolm Knowles describes adult learning as a process of self-directed inquiry and identified the following characteristics of adult learners: adults are autonomous and self-directed, with accrued experience and knowledge, they are goal-and relevancy oriented, practical and need to be shown respect (Russel, 2006). Therefore assumptions about how children learn do not apply to how adults learn (Galbraith & Fouch 2007). The difference in adult learners relates to their degree of motivation, the amount of

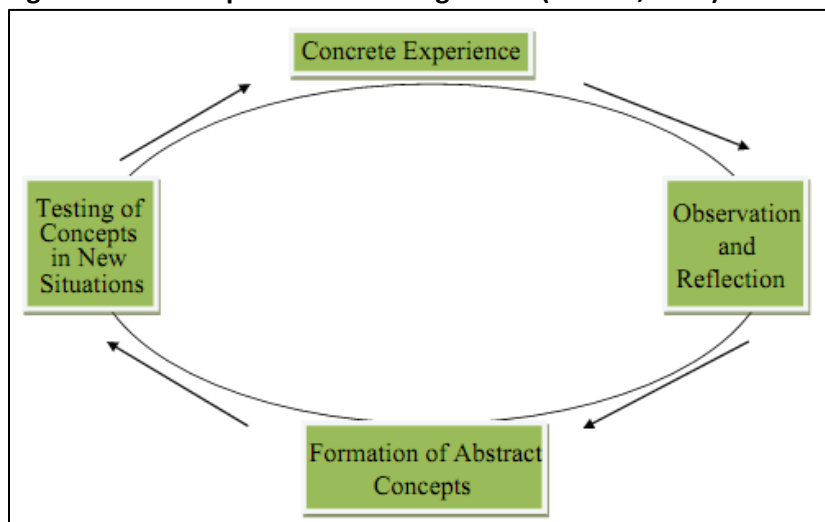
previous experience accumulated; how they engage in the learning process and applies their learning (Russel, 2006). Adults also continue to learn as they grow older and research has shown that a person's ability to learn actually increases throughout a person's life (Galbraith & Fouch, 2007).

### 2.3.2 Kolb's learning cycle

While learning theories attempt to explain what learning is, Kolb's experiential learning model (figure 1) attempts to explain how people learn. According to the model, an experience that represents a learning opportunity takes place (concrete experience), the learner then thinks about the experience (reflective observation) and try to make sense of their learning by applying ideas, concepts and theories (abstract conceptualisation), and then identifies opportunities to apply learning or behaviour change (active experimentation) (Eriksen, 2012).

This model has influenced and informed the design of formal learning programmes to optimise a person's learning by focussing on all four stages. Although Kolb's model suggest that for learning to take place, a person needs to move through all four stages (Eriksen, 2012; Snoeren et al., 2015) the reflection stage has enjoyed more attention as a critical stage for making learning stick (Corlett, 2013; Eriksen, 2012). Crick, Haigney, Huang, Coburn, and Goldspink (2013) also suggested that learning power is strengthened when a person is provided with time and opportunities for reflection and discussion about their learning on tasks at work.

**Figure 1: Kolb's experiential learning model (Eriksen, 2012)**



### 2.3.3 Learning approaches

What learning is and how adults learn provides good insights for understanding the concept of learning. However because learning is an individualised process, an overview of different learning approaches is also required. Learning approaches encompass a person's intention toward a learning task as well as the strategies they use to fulfil this intention (Kyndt et al., 2012). Kyndt et al. (2012) differentiate between learning approaches related to formal learning programmes and learning approaches related to learning at work.

**Table 2: Learning approaches related to formal learning (Kyndt et al., 2012)**

Learning approach	Intention	Strategies
Deep approach	Intrinsically interested to understand the learning task	Gather new information Relate new knowledge to previous knowledge Search for underlying arguments
Surface approach	Extrinsic to the task – to avoid failure	Limiting the learning task to the bare essentials Short-term, last minute memorising (Dehler & Welsh, 2014) Focussing on reproduction by rote learning
Achievement approach	Motivated by competition Obtaining good grades Looking good in the eyes of others	Organise the learning with regard to time and space – when, how long, where they learn

Table 2 above outlines the learning approaches related to formal learning. In a work context the learning approaches include: deep approach, surface-rational approach, and the surface-disorganised approach. The deep approach is similar to the approach described in Table 2 where the employee's intention to understand the learning task results from his/her intrinsic interest for the task (Kyndt et al., 2012). Because the employee's interest is driven intrinsically he/she will use their own free will to learn, relate new learning to previous knowledge and determine how to transfer the new learning in order to solve problems (Kyndt et al., 2012).

Employees with a surface-rational approach do so out of external reasons (intention) and will take a detailed step-by-step approach (strategy) to solving problems (Kyndt et al., 2012). The surface-disorganised approach is more of a reaction to work than an approach to it as it reflects

a non-academic orientation with extrinsic intentions, associated with feelings of being overwhelmed, dissatisfied with one's work environment, and incompetent to execute tasks (Kyndt et al., 2012).

“Individual characteristics such as personality traits, demographics, cognitive ability, attitudinal constructs, as well as goal orientation and self-efficacy are some of the factors that can affect training effectiveness through their influence on trainees' motivation” (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011, p. 3). As already mentioned, each person approaches learning with their own individual disposition and based on the literature it is proposed that the following individual characteristics are the most influential predictors of learning performance: general mental ability and conscientiousness (Blume et al., 2010; Culpin et al., 2014; Kim, Oh, Chiaburu, & Brown, 2012) - although cognitive ability has been found to be less important in field context and more important in laboratory studies (Blume et al., 2010; Grohmann et al., 2014). Kim et al. (2012) also found that core self-evaluation, which refers to the central beliefs about and evaluations of oneself in terms of self-worth, competence and capabilities; affect learning motivation and performance. People with more positive core self-evaluation have higher learning motivation and perform better than people with less positive core self-evaluation (Kim et al., 2012). However Kim et al. (2012) agree with Gegenfurtner (2011, p. 163) that “motivation is too complex a phenomenon to be downsized to a single factor”.

Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in their ability to do a task (Robbins & Judge, 2009). A person with high self-efficacy is more confident in their ability to succeed in doing a task as they will keep on trying until they succeed (Robbins & Judge, 2009). High self-efficacy levels are an important trait for learning to take place effectively because a person's self-efficacy expectation positively impacts their motivation to learn (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011). Hunter (2012) explains how positive emotions, linked to positive memories, may lead to a sense of high self-efficacy which is a powerful source of motivation. Similarly, negative emotions, linked to negative memories may lead to a sense of low self-efficacy which makes a person averse to taking action.

## **2.4 The transfer of learning concept and the importance of transfer**

The investment in human capital development activities like leadership development programmes to enhance employees' competence is key to increase competitive advantage and support the successful achievement of corporate strategy (Cheng & Hampson, 2008; Culpin et al., 2014; Johnson et al., 2012; Weissbein, Huang, Ford, & Schmidt, 2010). However this investment is only realised when employees actually transfer the content learned in their job and in their workplace (Grohmann et al., 2014). Therefore the transfer of learning to the workplace is imperative given the financial investment made by organisations in leadership development programmes and the importance of developing competent leaders to remain competitive (Culpin et al., 2014).

However as per Bates et al. (2012) the learning transfer process is complex and dynamic moving from “pre-training experiences to the acquisition of knowledge and skills, to the capability to apply new learning to job-related tasks, to the application of learning to tasks and activities beyond those that were initially targeted by the training” (p. 549). Motivational underpinning of this process is imperative to ensure successful transfer pre-, during and post the learning activity.

### **2.4.1 Defining the transfer of learning**

Donovan and Darcy (2011) mentions that the purpose of training and development is to improve the performance of the organisation and the individual, which will be of little value if the new knowledge and skill is not used back on the job and does not lead to effective performance. Table 3 provides a list of transfer of learning definitions found in literature by different authors. From the literature it is clear that the transfer of learning is interested in the extent to which one uses one's knowledge and skills learned from a learning programme in one's job (Cheng & Hampson, 2008).

**Table 3: Definitions of transfer of learning contained within the literature**

Reference	Learning transfer definition...
Grohmann et al. (2014)	Training transfer occurs when changes in on-the-job behaviour is apparent due to the individual applying what they have learned in training to their actual work setting.
Culpin et al. (2014, p. 133) referencing Ford and Weissbein (1997)	Learning transfer refers to “the application, generalizability and maintenance of new knowledge and skills to a wide variety of managerial situations, and fundamentally examines the extent to which course content is transferred or applied by participants back in their workplace.”
Bates et al. (2012, p. 549)	Transfer of learning refers to “the extent to which knowledge, skills and abilities learned in work-related training are generalized and maintained on the job.”
Blume et al. (2010, p. 1066)	Transfer of learning is referred to as positive transfer of training and defined as “the extent to which the learning that results from a training experience transfers to the job and leads to meaningful changes in work performance.”
Cheng and Hampson (2008, p. 328) referencing Olsen (1998)	“Transfer of training occurs when the knowledge learned is actually used on the job for which it was intended.”
Burke and Hutchins (2007, p. 265)	“Training transfer generally refers to the use of trained knowledge and skill back on the job.”
Kirwan and Birchall (2006)	Training transfer refers to how people generalise what they have learned to their job and how they maintain this content over a period of time.

#### 2.4.2 The transfer of learning concept

There are two parts to learning transfer namely: how learning is applied to different situations (called generalisation) and the continued use of the new learning (called maintenance) (Blume et al., 2010; Cheng & Hampson, 2008). Originally, transfer was only concerned with the dimension of generalisation as it (transfer) was interested in the extent to which learning of a response in one task influences the response in another task. In terms of this definition, transfer was classified into two types: near transfer or far transfer (Blume et al., 2010).

With near transfer, transfer occurs when the method and approach used for the learning task are similar to the transfer task (because the transfer task and learning tasks are very similar, for example typing on a typewriter and on a computer). With far transfer the tasks in the learning situation and in the transfer setting are different, for example managing a team to managing a department, which makes generalisability more likely for near transfer tasks than far transfer

tasks (Blume et al., 2010). This means that a person might not be able to correctly apply the learning to a task if it is different from the original condition. However Clark and Voogel (1985) cited in Burke and Hutchins (2007) is of the opinion that far transfer can be achieved if a person's general ability score is high.

Gagne (1965) cited in Blume et al. (2010) classified generalisation into two process types, namely lateral transfer and vertical transfer of learning. Lateral transfer occurs when a person is able to use a complex skill over a broad set of situations (Blume et al., 2010), for example when a person recognises that he/she can use their presentation skills for business presentations in their community when hosting a community event as well. Vertical transfer occurs when a person can acquire a more complex skill due to skills or knowledge previously acquired (Blume et al., 2010) for example a person who can work on MSWord will master the skill of MSPowerPoint much quicker than a person who has not worked on MSWord or any other MS Office applications.

As mentioned the transfer of learning is a complex construct and can be examined in many different ways as illustrated by the framework of transfer by Barnett and Ceci (2002) (Blume et al., 2010). The framework breaks down the characteristics of transfer into two overall factors: the content and the context, that is what is transferred, and when and where it is transferred from and to respectively (Barnett & Ceci, 2002; Blume et al., 2010) – see figure 2.

**Figure 2: Taxonomy for far transfer (Barnett & Ceci, 2002)**

<b>A Content: What transferred</b>					
<b>Learned skill</b>	Procedure	Representation	Principle or heuristic		
<b>Performance change</b>	Speed	Accuracy	Approach		
<b>Memory demands</b>	Execute only	Recognize and execute	Recall, recognize and execute		

<b>B Context: When and where transferred from and to</b>					
	Near	←————→		Far	
<b>Knowledge domain</b>	Mouse vs. rat	Biology vs. botany	Biology vs. economics	Science vs. history	Science vs. art
<b>Physical context</b>	Same room at school	Different rooms at school	School vs. research lab	School vs. home	School vs. the beach
<b>Temporal context</b>	Same session	Next day	Weeks later	Months later	Years later
<b>Functional context</b>	Both clearly academic	Both academic but one nonevaluative	Academic vs. filling in tax forms	Academic vs. informal questionnaire	Academic vs. at play
<b>Social context</b>	Both individual	Individual vs. pair	Individual vs. small group	Individual vs. large group	Individual vs. society
<b>Modality</b>	Both written, same format	Both written, multiple choice vs. essay	Book learning vs. oral exam	Lecture vs. wine tasting	Lecture vs. wood carving

### 2.4.3 The importance of transfer

Organisations are more aware of the strategic importance of investing and spending money and resources on the training and development of their employees, however the extent to which the knowledge and skills that were learned are transferred to the workplace remains a concern (Culpin et al., 2014; Donovan & Darcy, 2011). Often what is learned on a programme is not necessarily being applied on the job (Saks & Burke, 2012). And organisations want to know if the money that they have spent on formal learning programmes yielded the expected benefits (Kauffeld et al., 2008 cited in Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013).

With transfer estimates ranging between 15% (after 1 year), 25% (after 6 months) and 40% (immediately following the training programme), and training investments resulting in



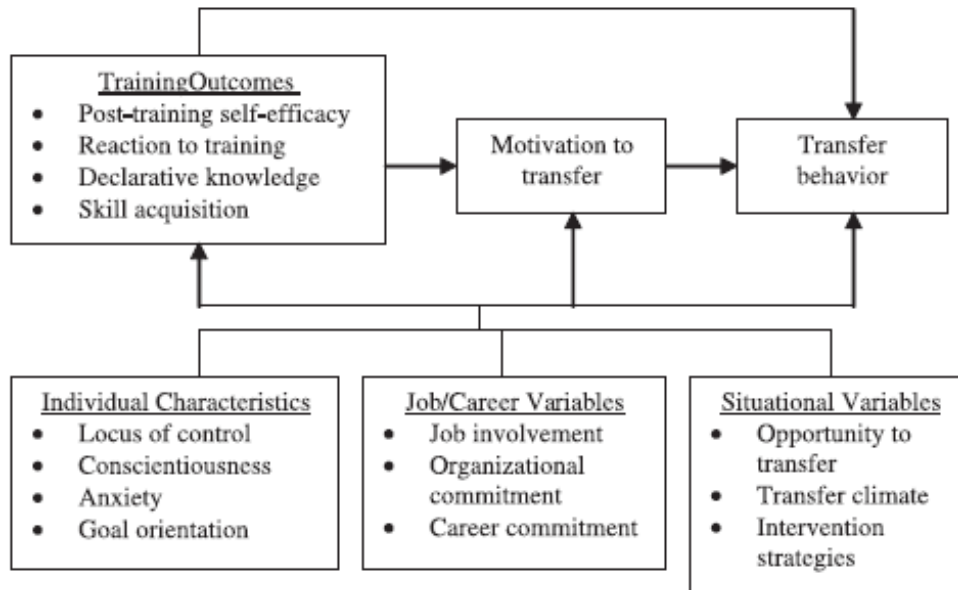
organisational or individual performance estimated at 50%, this concern is not unwarranted (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Donovan & Darcy, 2011). A significant amount of studies are also raising concerns about the transfer of learning level for executive education programmes (Culpin et al., 2014). Therefore it is no wonder that the research focus has shifted over the years from transfer studies related to educational issues to focus on transfer to improve the application of workplace training (Blume et al., 2010; Donovan & Darcy, 2011). Ng and Dastmalcian (2011) response that the link from training to performance must still be resolved supports this shift.

## **2.5 Predictors of transfer**

Due to the 'transfer problem' eluded to in the previous section, a multitude of studies have explored factors that can affect transfer of learning in a variety of settings resulting in a large number of factors being identified (Blume et al., 2010; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006) - however it is suggested that further factors may exist (Donovan & Darcy, 2011).

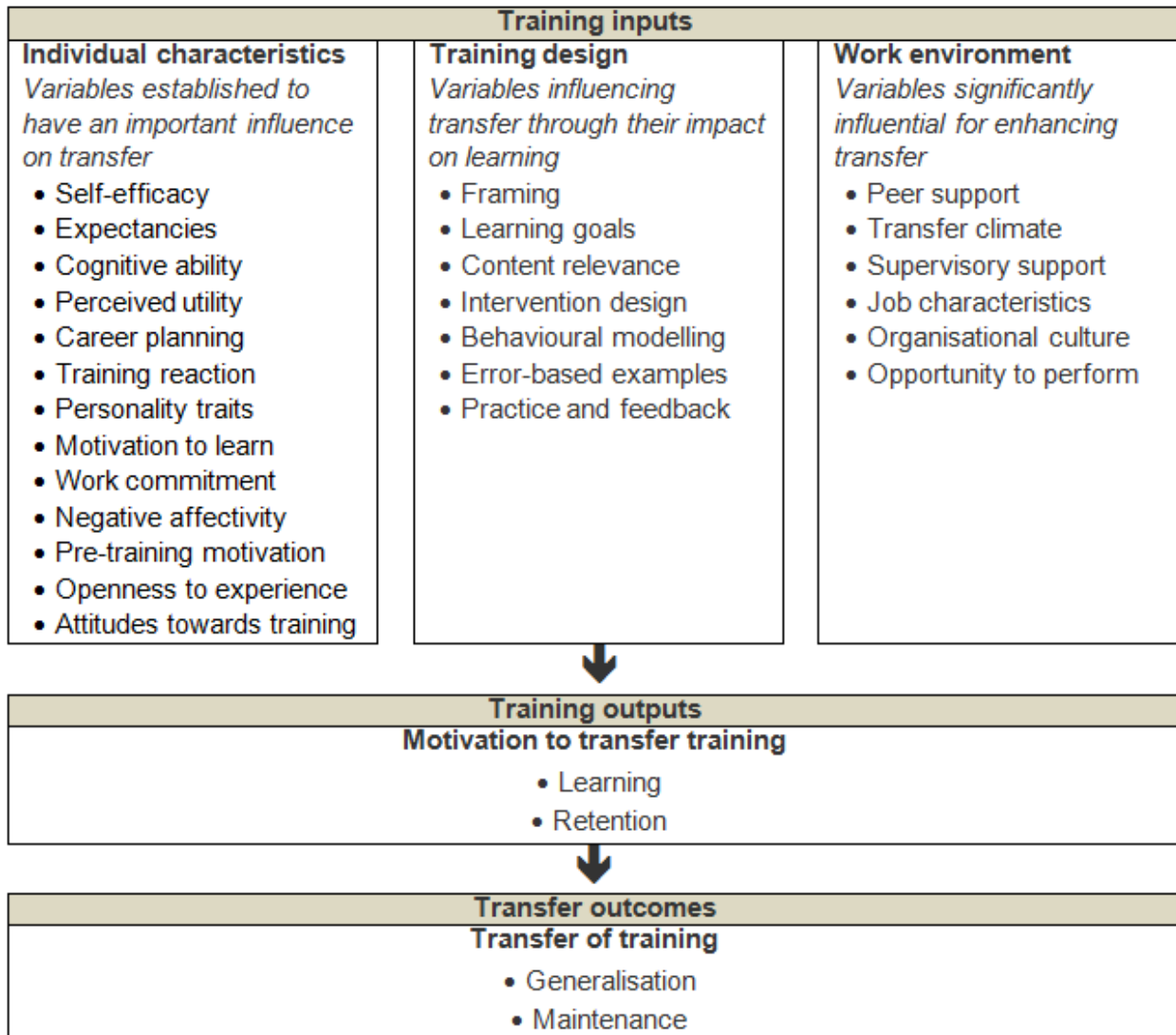
Figure 3 list the pertinent variables that have been tested in transfer of training studies from the early to late 1990's (Cheng & Hampson, 2008). The independent variable categories studied during this period include: individual characteristics, job/career variables and situational variables (Cheng & Hampson, 2008). After this period narrative and 'vote-counting' literature reviews were conducted to confirm findings regarding the influence of variables on transfer outcomes and although there has been a call for new approaches to integrative transfer model development, little new research was undertaken to discover new variables (Cheng & Hampson, 2008).

**Figure 3: Pertinent variables in transfer of training studies (Chen & Hampson, 2008)**



Baldwin and Ford (1988) proposed a systems model of transfer of training which highlights important training inputs like trainee characteristics, training design and work environment on training outputs and key transfer outcomes such as generalisation and maintenance (Cheng & Hampson, 2008). Trainee characteristics is concerned with individual elements, whereas training design is concerned with how the learning activities are relevant and related to the job, and work environment looks at the opportunities that the attendee have to apply and practice their learning in the work environment (Donovan & Darcy, 2011). Baldwin and Ford's (1988) systems model of transfer became an important starting point for further investigations and studies about variables that influence transfer (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006). Gegenfurtner, Veermans, Festner, and Gruber (2009) for example used the elements of individual, training and organisation to propose an integrative model of motivation to transfer training based on their integrated literature review on transfer motivation. Table 4 provides a summary of findings from Baldwin and Ford (1988), Burke and Hutchins (2007) and Gegenfurtner et al. (2009).

**Table 4: Variables established through research to have an influence on the Transfer System process (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Burke & Hutchins, 2007) based on the integrative model of motivation to transfer training suggested by Gegenfurtner et al. (2009)**



The Human Resource Development evaluation research and measurement model by Holton (1996) was initially proposed as a model for training evaluation, before it became the conceptual basis for the Learning Transfer Inventory System (Bates et al., 2012). The Learning Transfer System Inventory classifies 16 constructs into four categories: trainee characteristics, motivation, work environment and ability (Bates et al., 2012; Cheng & Hampson, 2008; Donovan & Darcy, 2011) in order to measure their effect on transfer in real work settings (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006). The potential limitation of this tool is that although it determines which factors

influence transfer of learning, it does not mention how the factors affect transfer (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006).

Recent research by Blume et al. (2010) and Culpin et al. (2014) confirmed some of the already established predictors of transfer. Culpin et al. (2014) indicated the following predictors of transfer to be the most reliable: locus of control, conscientiousness; anxiety; individual dimension and transfer climate; peer and line-manager support systems; and intervention strategies (like goal setting and relapse prevention training). Whereas Blume et al. (2010) found that although there are few consistently strong individual predictors of transfer and that one set of variables are not necessarily superior over another set of variables (individual variables versus situational variables), trainee motivation does strongly influence the transfer of training. Accordingly they (Blume et al., 2010) found that trainee motivation has a stronger relationship with transfer measures of use than with measures of effectiveness which means that trainees with higher levels of motivation attempt to use the skills they have learned more often. However, Blume et al. (2010) caution that while the use of skills learned is necessary, if applied ineffectively the learning will not lead to positive organisational outcomes.

It is evident from the literature that a wide variety of factors affecting learning transfer and a number of models to explain their many and varied influences exist (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006), however inconsistent and unexpected findings have often disappointed. Cheng and Hampson (2008) are of the opinion that this should alert us that previous models may not be adequate for studying the transfer process. Therefore this section only considered and included the most pertinent factors established by research as an overview for the researcher's consideration.

## 2.6 Motivational frameworks that drive learning and learning transfer

### 2.6.1 Motivation to learn and motivation to transfer

Building on Baldwin and Ford's (1988) study, Burke and Hutchins (2007) conducted an integrative and analytical review of transfer research and provided a comprehensive synthesis of factors impacting transfer of training. The findings from this study indicated which of the variables related to 'individual characteristic, training design and work environment' are supported and which require further research (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Two factors under the learner characteristics domain were highlighted as requiring more research: Motivation to learn and motivation to transfer, (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). These two factors have been identified to play a central and connecting role in the overall transfer process (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009; Kirwan & Burchall, 2006).

Training motivation is concerned with the efforts (intensity and persistence) that a person applies in a learning programme, before, during and after the programme (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Research proposes that motivation to learn is a direct precursor of learning (Kirwan & Burchall, 2006) and a critical precursor to training outcomes (Weissbein et al., 2010) and could potentially have a substantial impact on training effectiveness (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Because a person's motivation before training influences cognitive and skill-based learning as well as training transfer, a person who is more motivated to learn will more likely exhibit better transfer as they seek opportunities to practice their new learning once back on the job (Weissbein et al., 2010).

Motivation to transfer refers to a person's desire or intended effort to use his/her skills and knowledge learned on a learning programme back on the job (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). Research found that motivation to transfer is a significant predictor of positive transfer (Burke & Hutchins, 2007) and recently Grohmann et al. (2014) found motivation to transfer to have a mediational link between training characteristics and training transfer. Motivation to transfer is thus expected to have a direct effect on individual performance (Kirwan & Burchall, 2006). However, it is unclear whether transfer motivation precedes transfer action (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009) and studies continue to examine how motivation to learn influences motivation to transfer (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). With regard to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation,

Burke and Hutchins (2007) mention that preliminary findings seem to favour intrinsic factors, although influence for both intrinsic and extrinsic factor on transfer have been found.

Grohmann et al. (2014) found that motivation to transfer had mixed effects on training transfer and distinguish between transfer quantity and transfer quality. In terms of transfer quantity, it was found that motivation to transfer have the highest effects on individuals who are high transferers (people who transfer a large amount of what they have learned) (Grohmann et al., 2014). In terms of transfer quality and perceived application to practice, the results showed higher benefits for low transferers (people who transferred a low amount of training content) (Grohmann et al., 2014). Therefore management development programmes which aim at getting individuals to transfer as many skills as possible into practice, will benefit the high transferers most in terms of motivation to transfer (Grohmann et al., 2014). The flipside is that management development programmes which require a profound understanding of training content, will benefit the low or medium transferers most in terms of motivation to transfer (Grohmann et al., 2014). This highlights the imperative to individually tailor learning programmes for participants to ensure the person's motivation to transfer is enhanced (Grohmann et al., 2014).

## **2.6.2 Goal-setting**

The aim of transfer of training is to increase the impact of training on workplace performance, and goal setting has been found to be an effective post-training intervention to increase this (Johnson et al., 2012). Goal-setting is a cognitive theory of motivation and one of the most frequently studied motivation construct in training research (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Chen & Latham, 2014; Parks & Guay, 2009). Goal setting leads to higher performance because it helps individuals to regulate their behaviour and increases their commitment, motivation, energy and persistence towards achieving goals (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Chen & Latham, 2014; Johnson et al., 2012).

Goals are internally represented desired states (Vancouver et al., 2014) and in terms of motivation it relates to what a person chooses to pursue (goal content) and how to pursue it (goal striving) (Parks & Guay, 2009). Reasons for using goal-setting to increase transfer of training are ample in the literature and include (Johnson et al., 2012; Parks & Guay, 2009):

- It increases goal commitment, planning behaviour and motivation towards your goal (Locke, 1996 cited in Johnson et al., 2012)
- It helps to direct behaviour towards goal relevant behaviours (cognitively and behaviourally) (Rothkopf & Billington, 1979 cited in Johnson et al., 2012)
- It increases energy and persistence toward goal-directed behaviour (Locke & Latham, 2002 cited in Johnson et al., 2012)
- It increases self-regulatory behaviour like setting performance standards and self-monitoring and self-appraisal (Latham & Locke, 1991 cited in Johnson et al., 2012)
- It motivates the individual to develop relevant strategies for goal attainment (Burke & Hutchins, 2007)

Goal content refers to the decision to pursue a goal (Parks & Guay, 2009). Individuals can be assigned goals or they can set it themselves (Johnson et al., 2012) as either learning goals or workplace performance goals (Parks & Guay, 2009). A learning goal focus attention on thinking of or finding ways to perform a task and thus motivates a person to develop his/her task related ability through knowledge acquisition whereas a performance goal focus attention on a task outcome and will increase a person's motivation to implement his/her knowledge (Chen & Latham, 2014).

Research has established that goals are more effective and lead to higher performance when they are specifically and consciously set as opposed to having no goal, an easy goal or a general goal (Chen & Latham, 2014; Johnson et al., 2012). As per Johnson et al. (2012) people who attended a leadership programme will usually have different goals from each other because goals are set based on the individual's desired behaviour change. Making a conscious decision about how the training will be used and anticipating difficulties that might be experienced and how to cope with these appear to be the key to transfer (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006). Specific goals like these are most effective because they guide the individual's behaviour towards the completion of that goal (Johnson et al., 2012). However, research has found that setting both a learning and performance goal simultaneously could hurt rather than help the performance of people (Chen & Latham, 2014).

Goal striving relates to the amount of effort and persistence a person puts into pursuing the goal after the goal was chosen (Parks & Guay, 2009). It involves self-regulatory processes that ensure that attention and effort are given and maintained to achieve the goal (Parks & Guay,

2009) as self-regulation helps people to achieve goals and control their urges (Vancouver et al., 2014). People's application of self-regulation through processes of self-efficacy and goal setting (Hardy, Day, Hughes, Wang, & Schuelke, 2014) can enhance the learning process and Hardy et al. (2014) suggest that cognitive, motivational and emotional self-regulatory processes are important in active learning and that more research is required to understand these behavioural self-regulatory processes.

Goal attainability can be either observable (assignment results) or latent (perceived development of your skills) (Reinig, Horowitz, & Whittenburg, 2011). This is an important observation because one might find that learning goals related to development of leadership skills tend to be hard to observe. This insight starts to shed light on why the transfer of learning percentage mentioned in the problem statement is so low.

From a motivational standpoint, one can argue that it is best that a person determine their own learning goals which will then guide their reflexive practices and engagement with others for learning and development purposes (Snoeren et al., 2015). Reinig et al. (2011) also found that people's satisfaction levels are higher when they achieve the goals they have set for themselves.

## **2.7 Conclusion**

The motivation and drive to learn and to perform is critical for the success of an individual and its organisation. Ultimately, the objective is to produce desirable behaviour and organisational change through learning and learning transfer (Donovan & Darcy, 2011). Employees who continuously learn and transfer their learning can help their organisation to adapt to the ever changing and evolving environment within which they operate (Crouse et al., 2011). However, with employees transferring as low as 15 to 40 percent of their learning to the workplace following attendance of a formal leadership programme (Donovan & Darcy, 2011; Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013) the value to the organisation is lost.

Furthermore, people differ in their thinking, feeling and behaviour as well as their motives (Corr et al., 2013). The literature reviewed highlighted that people have different amounts and different types of motivation which is both intrinsically and extrinsically driven (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Being aware that people are different is an important precursor for being able to choose



and apply the relevant factors which will influence people's motivation and drive (Corr et al., 2013). Understanding which factors motivate and drive people to learn and apply their learning is important so that both educational programme developers and human resource managers can build these motivators into their strategies and activities (Corr et al., 2013) in order to stimulate employees' motivation which allows them to learn more, learn quicker and perform better.

For middle managers to transfer learning to the workplace, learning must have taken place and the middle manager must be motivated to do so (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation plays a role in this context (Cerasoli et al., 2014). Although some pertinent motivational variables and models that impact learning and learning transfer have been identified and created, a conceptual framework, indicating which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors are the most significant levers for learning and learning transfer for middle managers is unclear. More research is required to investigate and report holistically the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors that are critical for learning and learning transfer (Bates et al., 2012) as related to middle managers. Therefore, the main objectives of this research is to identify those motivational factors that play a significant role in driving the learning and learning transfer of middle managers and to propose a practical framework for identifying the key motivators that drive learning and learning transfer in the workplace for middle managers.

## Chapter 3: Research questions

The purpose of this research is to identify motivational factors relevant to the middle managers that enable learning and learning transfer. Once the motivators have been identified a conceptual model of motivators that enable learning and learning transfer for middle managers will be proposed. The model could provide business and educators with an understanding of how to catalyse motivation for high-quality learning and learning transfer at this level.

### 3.1 Research question 1

#### **Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to learn?**

Learning has been positively associated with organisational performance and is therefore an important aspect for organisational life (Crouse et al., 2011). Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can drive a person to learn. While intrinsic motivation drives a person to act on their inherent interest to grow and develop, extrinsic motivation also drives a person to intentionally do something (like learn) because the learning could provide the means to acquire something else of value (like a promotion) (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This question seeks to understand what middle managers consider to be the key motivational factors that drive or enable learning. The outcome of this question will assist to highlight and better understand the important drivers for learning that can be employed by business and educators.

### 3.2 Research question 2

#### **Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to transfer learning?**

Learning transfer, concerned with the extent to which formal learning content is transferred or applied by participants back in the workplace, involves the application, generalisability and maintenance of this new knowledge and skills by the individual to a wide variety of managerial situations (Culpin et al., 2014). Similar to learning, a variety of factors could influence learning transfer. This question seeks to understand what middle managers consider to be the key motivational factors that drive or enable transfer of learning. An understanding of what these

motivational factors could be from the middle manager's perspective might uncover valuable insights not yet discussed or considered in research.

### **3.3 Research question 3**

#### **How are middle managers sustaining the transfer of learning back in the workplace?**

Learning transfer that does not result in effective performance back in the workplace is of little value to the organisation (Donovan & Darcy, 2011). The purpose is for a person to transfer what they have learned to the workplace to improve their own and the organisation's performance. This question seeks to understand the efforts and/or critical activities that middle managers employ in order to optimally sustain transfer of learning back in the workplace. The outcome of this question will assist in identifying practical activities which middle managers can use to sustain the transfer of learning optimally.

## Chapter 4: Research methodology

This section outlines the research method that was used for this study.

### 4.1 Research method

This research aimed to explore what motivates middle managers to learn and transfer that learning back in the workplace. Due to the embedded and process nature of motivation and learning it would be difficult to identify these through quantitative research. Therefore an inductive exploratory method was used to explore the research context and concepts in more detail by way of qualitative study (Hussey & Hussey, 1997).

Although the issues of motivation, learning and learning transfer are not new, the researcher intend to assess these topics in a new light in order to discover new insights and fuller understanding on these issues (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). To gain deeper understanding and insights of this event, a first-hand view from the people who experienced it was obtained by way of focus group interview (Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005). This helped the researcher to understand the behaviour from the participant's own frame of reference focussing on the meaning of the occurrence rather than the measurement thereof (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). It helped to uncover and understand what happened in reality in terms of the processes, what this meant and the value it added (Welman et al., 2005).

Focus groups were used to obtain the qualitative data. It allowed the researcher to interact directly with respondents and provided opportunities to clarify responses, ask follow up questions and probe for further information (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2007). In addition, the researcher could observe nonverbal responses for supplementary or contradictory information in relation to the verbal responses (Stewart et al., 2007).

The data collected was analysed inductively helping the researcher to move from specific observations at the start of the study towards broader statements of generalisations (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

## 4.2 Population

The population of relevance consisted of middle managers working in a multinational organisation who attended a leadership development programme with the aim of equipping middle managers with the knowledge and skill to be applied, generalised and maintained in order to improve their performance. Middle managers in multinational organisations have increased responsibilities to lead and manage change and performance in their organisations and therefore their motivation to learn and transfer learning is critical.

A multinational organisation is defined as company who operates and derives some of its revenue from operations in several countries but has its headquarters in one country (businessdictionary.com). The two multinational companies identified for this study were Anglo American and MTN. To ensure validity of the study two companies were used to overcome the potential differences that might arise due to the programme design (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). No differences were identified during the research.

The role of the middle managers to lead and manage change has increased as organisations are getting flatter, more global and leaner. With the thinning out of management ranks, there is more responsibility on middle managers to engage, train and develop their employees (Ketter, 2012; McKinney, 2013). In a world of increasing flux and complexity, middle managers are required to effectively coordinate the actions of organisational members whose background, language, culture and skill levels vary widely as they try to execute the company's vision and strategy and ultimately achieve the company's strategic goals (Erikson, 2012). Increasingly they are also expected to make critical decisions that in the past would have been made higher up in the company or later in the manager's career (McKinney, 2013). The increased responsibility and expectations of middle managers are resulting in an increased need to develop these managers' leadership skills (McKinney, 2013) and this is the reason why this research focused specifically on understanding which motivational factors drive learning and learning transfer for middle managers.

### 4.3 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis was the perceptions and experiences of a body of individuals, namely middle managers from multinational companies regarding motivators that drive their learning and learning transfer (Hussey & Hussey, 1997).

### 4.4 Sampling

The researcher conducted focus groups with a sample of middle managers who shared their experience and views regarding drivers that motivate them to learn and motivate them to transfer this learning to the workplace after attending a formal leadership programme. A non-probability sampling method was used targeting middle managers from two multinational companies (namely Anglo American and MTN) who attended leadership development programmes at the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS) over the past 24 months.

Non-probability samples are less complicated and more economical than probability samples; however the results obtained from a non-probability sample may not be as accurate as those obtained from probability sampling - which may reduce confidence in the research conclusion (Welman et al., 2005). Therefore the researcher used purposive sampling which is the best non-probability sampling technique to reduce this risk (Welman et al., 2005).

Purposive sampling enabled the researcher to control how the sample was selected and required the researcher to use her experience and judgement to deliberately identify units of analysis (middle managers at multinational companies) who would be best able to help answer the research question and who could be regarded as being representative of the population (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders & Lewis, 2012). A sample size of 25 participants spread across three different focus groups - with four participants in focus group 1, six participants in focus group 2, and fifteen participants in focus group 3 - were obtained.

The researcher used the programme participant lists from the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS) as the sampling frame (Welman et al., 2005) as it contained the name and contact details of delegates who attended middle management leadership development programmes over the past 24 months at the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS).

The potential limitation from using this sampling frame is that it limits the representativeness of the population because the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS) participant list did not contain all the relevant units of analysis. For example people who did not attend a leadership programmes with Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS) were systematically excluded (Welman et al., 2005). Although people who did not attend was excluded, the sample was still typical of middle managers in multinational organisations because they are employed in middle management roles across the different business functions and across the different locations which the company operates in - which might make the findings more generalisable to middle managers (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

#### **4.5 Data collection**

Data gathering methods best suited for exploratory study which requires deep understanding of the concepts being explored are observations, focus groups and in-depth interviews (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). For this study data was collected using focus groups.

Focus groups provided data from a group of people much quicker than in the case of individual face-to-face interviews (Stewart et al., 2007). It allowed the researcher to observe difference of opinions among group members which provided additional insights into why and how people embrace or reject particular ideas (Stewart et al., 2007). It also allowed respondents to react to and build on the responses of other group members (Stewart et al., 2007). Because a person's motives are often unconscious (Hunter, 2012) listening to other group member's views potentially helped to bring those deeply embedded unconscious motives to the fore, producing rich data and insights that might otherwise not have been uncovered without the interaction (Hussey & Hussey, 1997; Stewart et al., 2007).

Stewart et al. (2007) stated that there are no general rules regarding the optimal number of focus groups and that when the population of interest is relatively homogenous and the research question is not too complex, a single group or two may be sufficient. Furthermore, Stewart et al. (2007) recommended six to twelve people per focus group as fewer than six participants do not generate a robust discussion and more than twelve participants become too difficult to manage and not all participants might get an opportunity to actively participate. For this study, three focus groups, of two hours each, were arranged for the simple reason of

catering for the availability of the sample who was invited to participate. Twenty people per focus group were invited to cater for the last minute cancellations that might take place.

Three focus groups were organised consisting of four to fifteen people each. The value of the focus groups was that it combined interviewing and observation which gave the researcher access to not only record what was said but also observe and record what was happening (Hussey & Hussey, 1997).

Prior to contacting individuals to invite them to the focus groups, permission was obtained from the companies (Anglo American and MTN). The focus group was conducted as proposed by Hussey and Hussey (1997) as described below.

- Participants were selected from the sample frame and invited to the focus group which was scheduled to be conducted on campus at the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS) because it was identified as a neutral location which is situated in the centre of the Johannesburg business hub and because delegates attended the learning programme there and were familiar with the campus. But then participants confirmed that they would only be able to attend the focus group if it was conducted at their offices, and therefore the three focus groups were conducted in person by the researcher at the respective offices of the participants. As Stewart et al. (2007) mentioned people are more likely to participate if the venue is close to their home or work.
- At the focus group sessions the purpose of the study and proceeding was explained.
- The importance of confidentiality was emphasised and all participants were asked to respect each other's confidentiality.
- The sessions started by asking participants to introduce themselves and to share what they have learned from the programme they attended.
- Participants were then given fifteen minutes to brainstorm individually the answers to the focus group questions in the focus group interview guide (Appendix 1) before each question was discussed in turn. The group were given ample time to discuss the topics among themselves as the researcher facilitated the process to ensure that all participants had an opportunity to contribute and that all topics were covered.
- The focus group sessions were audio recorded and the recordings were deleted once it was transcribed.



Although Steward et al. (2007) suggest that an incentive may be used to encourage participation, no incentive was used for this study in line with ethics regulation.

A limitation was the development of group think which could deprive the process from rich insightful information to be obtained. However the researcher managed this by asking probing questions to refocus and stimulate the discussions.

#### **4.6 Data collection tool and pre-test**

Participants were asked to share their opinions, reactions and feelings (Hussey & Hussey, 1997) regarding their motivation to learn and transfer learning in a discussion format which was guided by a focus group interview schedule (Appendix 1). The interview schedule contained open-ended questions, definitions of key terms and probes from the literature review that allowed respondents to freely provide the amount of information they wanted to give (Stewart et al., 2007).

Prior to conducting the focus groups the list of questions were tested with a group of colleagues to determine the suitability of the questions and to ensure that the questions were understood and the answers would provide the researcher with the data needed (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). Four of the seven questions were tweaked to make them more focussed and understandable and definitions of the key themes “internal factors (intrinsic motivation)”, “external factors (extrinsic motivation)” and “transfer of learning” were added. The questions were tested again with another colleague before sending it to the focus group attendees in preparation for the sessions.

#### **4.7 Data analysis**

The large volume of open-ended data were analysed using content analysis and frequency analysis which involved counting the frequencies and sequencing of particular concepts in order to identify themes (Hussey & Hussey, 1997; Welman et al., 2005). Content analysis helped the researcher to create meaning and discover the insights and implications relevant to the research questions asked, and frequency analysis assisted the researched to determine the frequency with which an idea or theme appeared (Stewart et al., 2007).

Data collected from the focus group discussion were audio recorded and transcribed for validity, accuracy and completeness to reduce the risk of observer bias (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). The data recorded during the focus group discussions was transcribed and aggregated per focus group question. The aggregated data was then read and analysed by allocating codes per section. The codes were transferred to a data table which was reviewed, resulting in a second round of analysis to further refine the initial codes. The second round of codes were transferred to the data table and reviewed again. Once the researcher was satisfied that the codes were suitable, the data table was analysed for important words and meanings that the participants attached to these (common themes). These themes were then classified into categories (Stewart et al., 2007; Welman et al., 2005) per focus group question. For example, responses of “More programme exposure” and “People don’t know about the course” was grouped into the category “Market the programme more”.

The researcher conducted, recorded and transcribed all the focus groups data herself which reduced inter-rater reliability and bias (Stewart et al., 2007). It took approximately three hours per focus group to transcribe the data and fifteen hours to analyse the data.

#### **4.8 Research assumption**

The research depended on the following assumptions being probably true for the study:

- Participants who attended leadership training programmes did learn something
- Participants provided truthful answers to questions asked during the focus groups based on the interview conditions and preserving their anonymity and confidentiality as well as their freedom of choice to withdraw from the study at any time
- It was assumed that the sample selected through purposive sampling was homogenous and representative of the population based on the selection criteria used (as explained in the sampling section)

## 4.9 Research limitations

The key research limitations identified are:

- The qualitative research was based on flexible and exploratory methods which increase the possibility of researcher bias to influence the results (Welman et al., 2005)
- When using non-probability sampling the researcher may never be sure that the results obtained are accurate or representative of the population which means that the results cannot validly be generalised to the population (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders & Lewis, 2012)
- A purposive sample was drawn based on the researcher's judgement and experience of whom will be best able to answer the research question. However different researchers may proceed in different ways which makes it almost impossible to evaluate the extent to which the sample is representative of the population (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders & Lewis, 2012)
- The focus group participants who were willing to participate in a 2-hour group discussion may be quite different from the population of interest (at least on some dimensions) which could limit generalisation to the larger population (Stewart et al., 2007).

The consistency matrix (Appendix 3) provides an overview of the alignment between the research questions, the literature reviewed, the data collection and analysis methods used, and the results displayed.

## Chapter 5: Results

### 5.1 Introduction

The results obtained from the data collection and analysis phase is presented in this section. The data for this study was obtained using the questions outlined in the focus group interview schedule (Appendix 1). The data was analysed using an intentional data analysis design to answer the research questions described in chapter 3.

### 5.2 Demographics

From Table 5 it is clear that the sample represented both genders although the gender split per focus group consisted of either majority female (like focus group 1 and 3) or majority male (like focus group 2) participants. The table also shows that both local (South African) and international (Botswana, Brazilian, British and New Zealand) participants made up the sample, with local participants being the majority and focus group 3 being the only focus group who had international participants.

**Table 5: Focus group gender and origin**

Focus group	Male	Female	South African	International
Focus group 1	1	3	4	0
Focus group 2	5	1	6	0
Focus group 3	6	9	7	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>8</b>

### 5.3 Results from the qualitative focus groups conducted

This section shows the results related to the motivational factors that drive learning and learning transfer in the workplace, as well and how transfer of learning is sustained in the workplace.

### 5.3.1 Research question 1 – Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to learn?

The aim of this question was to determine which intrinsic and extrinsic motivators drive participants to learn and what else the organisation can do to further motivate employees to learn. The responses were analysed using content and frequency analysis as described in Chapter 4.

Focus group participants were given fifteen minutes to brainstorm individually the answers to the focus group questions in the focus group interview guide (Appendix 1) before each question was discussed in turn, allowing each delegate an opportunity to provide their input and contribution. The results pertaining to intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drive learning are presented respectively in Table 6 and Table 7 below.

**Table 6: Intrinsic motivators that drive learning**

Rank	Factors	Frequency
1	Desire to achieve	15
2	Desire to add value, make a difference	14
3	Desire to understand and improve self	11
4	Eagerness to learn	10
5	Curiosity to learn	9

An inspection of Table 6 shows that the top five intrinsic motivational drivers relate mostly to the participants individual characteristics of desire, eagerness and curiosity related to learning. The top three drivers are linked to motivation emanating from participants' own individual and personal desires, notably desire to achieve, desire to add value and make a difference, and desire to understand and improve self. Participants shared the following related to most important factor 'desire to achieve':

#### **Desire to achieve**

*"I'm motivated intrinsically to work hard because I want to be the best that I'm at; I want to be viewed as a subject matter expert and a thought leader."*

*“...I try to achieve and strive for excellence in everything I do”.*

*“I am a very passionate person about my profession and want to be able to do it better... This drives me to learn new skills that can assist me to be better and to assist others to be better.”*

*“I want to be the best Chief Safety Officer in the group.”*

### **Desire to add value and make a difference**

The ‘desire to add value and make a difference’ was the second most important factor as two participants noted:

*“...a desire to have a purpose and to be able to add value. My worst nightmare would be to feel like I’m not adding value to the company or to society or whatever it may be. And what motivates me to learn is so that I can have that purpose in turn if I can add that value because I can’t do it without having the right knowledge and skills.”*

*“[Company] believes in the right people, with the rights skills, at the right place. I want to be a part of a company that believes in developing their people to do better. Making a real difference in the operation where I work is truly rewarding - knowing that I contribute to the health and safety of those employees that they may return to their families safely.”*

The results pertaining to extrinsic motivators that drive learning are presented Table 7 below.

**Table 7: Extrinsic motivators that drive learning**

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Factors</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
1	Prospects of career advancement, promotion, pay	11
2	Learning from other people	9
3	Quality of faculty	7
4	Stay marketable	6
5	Reap reward	4

Table 7 indicates that prospects of career advancement in the form of a promotion or a pay increase is one of the key extrinsic motivators that drive learning on a formal learning

programme, followed by learning from other people on the programme and the quality of faculty. Participants from the focus groups mentioned the following about the most important extrinsic factor that drive learning (prospects of career advancement, promotion and pay):

### **Prospects of career advancement, promotion and pay**

*“The programme gave you a platform where if you attended these programmes it counts when they consider you for possible vacancies. If something better comes along and you attended the course it will add to motivate and give you opportunities.”*

*“If you look at your certifications I mean like your PMP, or for me like your CIA, we know that when you have that you will earn fifteen percent more than your compatriots in the market”.*

*“Externally I think advancing your career, because I do think the skill-sets you display influences how your career advances.”*

*“Yea, I put promotion and pay rise - not necessarily [in the current company] under the current climate - but the external factor would be that this looks good on your CV.”*

### **Learning from other people**

One of the participants expressed the following sentiment regarding the second highest ranked theme of ‘learning from other people’, as she said:

*“What helped was the group themselves, that we had people from different areas within the business and everyone was willing to share their experience and give their views – which helped with motivation. There is always something you can learn from each other which helped us to learn a lot – and we were also willing to listen to each other”.*

Further inspection of Table 7 also highlights the following training input elements: individual characteristics, training design, and work environment. Individual characteristics, specifically relating to staying marketable as one of the participants mentioned *“I think all of us have a need to stay marketable”*. This particular factor might be due to the current organisational environment participants find themselves in as both multinational companies are currently

conducting an organisational review and cost cutting exercise. One of the delegates noted that: *“the changing environment...the current situation [organisational review and retrenchment] is leading us to pursue knowledge”*. Training design, highlighted specifically learning from other people on the programme, and the quality of faculty, and work environment, indicated specifically opportunities for career advancement, promotion or pay, and reaping rewards.

Comparing the result from Tables 6 and 7 indicates that there were higher frequencies of intrinsic motivators mentioned by participants than extrinsic motivators which may suggest greater top of mind relevance of intrinsic motivators in the minds of the respondents. However both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation was present in driving motivation to learn.

After obtaining the personal opinions from participants regarding factors that drive their motivation to learn, participants were asked to identify how the organisation could make future delegates want to learn more. The results are outlined in Table 8 below.

**Table 8: How the organisation can make future delegates want to learn more**

Rank	Results	Frequency
1	Market the programme more	13
2	Show how learning leads to career opportunities	9
3	Improve the nomination process – must be clear and consistent	6
4	Communicate the programme outcomes and expectations	4
	They can't - it must be a personal drive for learning	4
5	Nominate the relevant people	3

Table 8 indicates that thirteen participants identified that ‘more marketing of the programme’ could motivate employees to learn more, followed by ‘showing how the learning leads to career opportunities’ which was identified by nine participants. One participant mentioned the following regarding marketing of the programme:

### **Market the programme more**

*“I do think though that it might be valuable to create awareness of it [programme]. What I found with this particular course or with any development course is that actually it is ‘hush-hush’ in the group. People don’t talk about it. It is like people deliberately hide it”*.



Another participant suggested using videos and “*showcasing the real positive of what came out of this [programme]*” in terms of marketing of the programme.

Further inspection of Table 8 indicates a varied spread between the top and the bottom ranked drivers in terms of frequency. Four respondents had a strong opinion that the organisation cannot motivate employees to learn more because it is a personal decision and drive for learning.

### 5.3.2 Research question 2 - Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to transfer learning?

The aim of this question was to determine which intrinsic and extrinsic motivators drive participants to transfer their learning in the workplace and what else the organisation can do to further motivate employees to transfer their learning in the workplace. Transfer of learning refers to the extent to which a person uses his/her knowledge and skill learned from the learning programme in his/her job (Cheng & Hampson, 2008). The responses were analysed using content and frequency analysis as described in Chapter 4.

The results pertaining to intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that helped participants to drive the transfer of learning are presented respectively in Table 9 and Table 10 below.

**Table 9: Intrinsic motivators that helped participants to drive transfer of learning**

Rank	Factors	Frequency
1	Inherent need to share learning	18
2	Desire to improve self and work	17
3	Desire to develop others	9
4	Openness to try new things	7
5	Desire to achieve	6

Table 9 indicates that a person’s inherent need to share his/her learning with others, his/her desire to improve themselves and their work, and his/her desire to develop others are perceived to be the three most important intrinsic motivational factors that drive transfer of learning.

From the focus groups it emerged that individuals are not just transferring what they have learned into their own immediate job, they are also transferring their learning to other people at work or at home in various ways. This is what a few of the participants have shared:

### **Inherent need to share learning**

*“What I’ve done is, all the knowledge I have learned on the programme in terms of the financials, personal mastery – I am using all of my insights and internal intellect to express and to be able to convey that to the team”.*

*“What I do is with my wife – she started a new job – when I learn something I discuss it with her and my kids”.*

*“I have an inherent pride in sharing my knowledge and the ability to contextualise a complex issue in a simple way so that everyone can understand”.*

*“I believe that knowledge must be shared, not retained in myself” (Brazilian participant)*

*“If you don’t share your learning with someone, you can’t embed the learning and you lose what you have learned”.*

*“People no learning alone, it is necessary place and interactive with people” (Brazilian participant).*

An inspection of Table 6 (intrinsic motivators that help drive learning) and Table 9 (intrinsic motivators that help drive the transfer of learning) highlights the sharing of a similar factor namely ‘desire to achieve’. In Table 6 ‘desire to achieve’ is ranked as the most important motivational factor that drives learning and in Table 9 ‘desire to achieve’ is ranked as the fifth most important motivational factor that drives the transfer of learning.

Table 10 shows the results pertaining to extrinsic motivational factors that helped participants to drive the transfer of learning.

**Table 10: Extrinsic motivators that helped participants to drive transfer of learning**

Rank	Factors	Frequency
1	Support from the line manager	9
2	Feedback on personal development areas	8
3	Benefits expected	2
	Group pressure	2
	Support from the group	2
4	Compliance	1
	Recognition	1

Table 10 shows a varied spread between the top two and the bottom five ranked drivers in terms of frequency. The support that participants receive from their line managers are one of the key extrinsic motivators that drive transfer of learning after attending a formal learning programme, followed by the feedback they receive on their own personal development areas from various stakeholders (for example the programme coach, line manager, and fellow participants on the programme). Participants across the focus groups said the following about the support they received from their line managers:

### **Support from the line manager**

*“Externally what helped me to transfer the stuff was support from my manager who bought into this and he is just an awesome leader himself.”*

*“...and I had lots of support from my head of department and my colleagues as well. They were guiding me through the entire IIP [individual improvement project] process.”*

*“With the assistance from my manager we managed to achieve lots of things in a short period.”*

One participant highlighted the importance of both themes: ‘line manager support’ and ‘feedback on personal development areas’ as extrinsic motivators that help to drive the transfer of learning:

*“Externally also I think that’s a common theme, the feedback my manager gave, especially the personal feedback and his take on what he seen that relates to that and how I can improve, and*

*also his feedback afterwards. We discussed it once or twice again where he said I did certain things again or I did certain things well, so his on-going support definitely is a factor.”*

A comparison of Tables 9 and 10 indicate that there were higher frequencies of intrinsic motivators mentioned by participants than extrinsic motivators which may suggest greater top of mind relevance of intrinsic motivators in the minds of the respondents. However both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation was present in driving motivation to transfer learning. This is similar to the finding in the previous section between Tables 6 and 7.

After obtaining the personal opinions from participants regarding factors that drive motivation to transfer learning; participants were asked to identify how the organisation could help future delegates to transfer their learning better. The results are displayed in Table 11 below.

**Table 11: How the organisation can help future delegates to transfer their learning better**

Rank	Results	Frequency
1	Line manager support and buy-in	8
2	Application opportunities	5
	Post programme follow up	5
3	Create framework to help implement learning	4
	Include in performance contract (key result areas)	4
	Learning must be related to the job	4
4	Provide better project sponsor support	3
	Measure the transfer of learning	3
5	Workload prevents transfer	2

Table 11 indicates that a wide spread of themes emerged from this question. Eight participants identified better line manager support and buy-in as a key action the organisation can take to help drive employees’ motivation to transfer their learning better. This is in line with Table 10 which highlighted that ‘support from line manager’ is also the highest ranked extrinsic motivational factor that drives an employee’s transfer of learning. As one of the participants noted about better line manager support and buy-in:

*“The delegates who eventually at the end of the day don’t make it are usually probably more due to managers’ support than personal non-motivation”.*

Providing employees with more opportunities to apply their learning (application opportunities) and implementing post-programme follow-up mechanism or processes were identified as the second and third most important activities that can help to motivate employees to transfer their learning more and better. One participant made the following statement which highlights both points:

*“...you are exposed to this whole new world where you’re at an executive level and your mind is being opened to think strategically. However when you come back [pause] there is no follow through from the organisation to say we have now opened these specific delegates to thinking at a strategic level and yet now all they got to do is go back to their normal jobs as operational...Maybe if you are selected... you can shadow your GM who is at a strategic level, and maybe your GM can give you a task to do like the business plan or assist in the business plan for the next year”.*

Two participants also mentioned that although they were motivated to transfer their learning in the workplace when they returned from the formal learning programme, their workload prevented them from doing so: *“once you get out of the course, your life and work demands take over...”* and *“...then you get back to reality and get stuck in the rat race”.*

### **5.3.3 Research question 3 - How are middle managers sustaining the transfer of learning back in the workplace?**

The aim of this question was to determine how participants are sustaining the transfer of learning back in the workplace (what did they do for example), and how the organisation can help them to keep transferring their learning in the workplace. The responses to these questions were analysed using content and frequency analysis as described in Chapter 4.

Table 12 indicates what participants have put in place to keep applying what they have learned (sustain the transfer of learning) back in the workplace.

**Table 12: What participants have put in place to sustain their transfer of learning**

Rank	Results	Frequency
1	Practice skills learned	11
	Create action plan or strategy	11
2	Frequent use/reference to learning content and notes	9
3	Share learning with others	7
4	Absence of learning transfer plan	5
5	Set goals	4

'Practicing the skills learned' and 'creating an action plans or strategy' have been identified by participants and ranked as equally important in terms of things that have been put in place to sustain the transfer of learning in the workplace. Both a formal (creating action plan or strategy) and an informal (practice skills learned) method seems to be beneficial to keep applying what have been learned. One participant explained how he keeps sustaining his transfer of learning in the workplace by practicing the skills that he has learned: *"I bought the crucial conversation book and I am trying to keep at that...I practiced challenging conversations by planning and asking questions"*.

### **Creating action plan or strategy**

Three participants shared how the use of action plans or strategies helped them to keep applying what they have learned:

*"My approach was to come up with strategies on how to conduct myself in meetings and in different situations, to constantly apply in my work, and to improve myself and put myself in a better position."*

*"An action plan was put in place for me to address areas of weakness... Goals were put in place with tools to be used to assist strengthening weaknesses and use strengths to advantage me."*

*"...Implementing a 'pause' moment: Just stop; give it five seconds let it process; and then answer, have really been very effective for me."*

## Absence of learning transfer plan

Five participants openly stated that they did not put anything in place (absence of learning transfer plan) to keep applying what they have learned:

*“I didn’t use anything”*

*“I did not actively decide to transfer”*

*“I did not put anything in place”*

*“I had a question mark here. I have no idea what I am still applying from what I have learned. I didn’t put in goals or things to keep on using it”*

*“I have my PDP [personal development plan] based upon my learnings, it forms part of my KRAs [key result areas] but other than that I don’t really have...”*

After obtaining the personal opinions from participants regarding the things they have put in place to sustain their transfer of learning; participants were asked to identify what the organisation could do to help future delegates keep on applying what they have learned (sustain the transfer of learning). The results are displayed in Table 13 below.

**Table 13: What the organisation can do to help employees sustain the transfer of learning**

Rank	Results	Frequency
1	Create opportunities to share learning	7
2	Create opportunities to apply learning	6
3	Allocate more time to implement learning	5
4	Clear career development plan	4
	Measure application of learning	4
5	Learner support (in the form of a website)	3
	Send delegates on more learning programmes	3

A wide spread of themes emerged from this question as shown in Table 13. Participants identified the creation of opportunities to share learning after attending a formal learning

programme as the most important thing an organisation can put in place to help employees sustain the transfer of learning. This is followed by the creation of opportunities to apply learning and allocating more time to employees to implement their learning.

Participants suggested more time to be allocated to work on the programme activities which will help them to transfer their learning, by for example extending the programme duration in order to implement programme deliverables and/or allocating time during work to allow you an opportunity to work on your programme activities. As one of the participants noted:

*“Have it ever been said that the course is too short? Three weeks is fine. But I don’t know, spreading it over 3 months? I feel is a bit tight, hectic. But I think maybe one could possibly absorb a bit more if it was spread maybe over 4 months, same three weeks, but over 4 months. Because I tell you during the course, you had to do work-work at night and at same time do BIP [business improvement project] and IIP [individual improvement project], it was almost too much”.*

An investigation of Tables 9, 12 and 13 shows that all three tables contain the theme ‘share learning’ as shown in Table 14 below:

**Table 14: The theme ‘share learning’ appears in Table 9, Table 12 and Table 13**

Table	Rank	Results
<b>Table 9:</b> Intrinsic motivators that helped participants to drive transfer of learning	1	Inherent need to share learning
<b>Table 12:</b> What participants have put in place to sustain their transfer of learning	3	Share learning with others
<b>Table 13:</b> What the organisation can do to help employees sustain the transfer of learning	1	Create opportunities to share learning

Table 14 indicates that the theme of ‘sharing learning’ is the top motivational factor which drove participants to transfer their learning (inherent need to share learning), and the third most used activity by participants to sustain the transfer of their learning (share learning with others), and the top ranked suggestion of what the organisation can put in place to help participants sustain the transfer of their learning (create opportunities to share learning).



## 5.4 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results from the data analysis conducted. Key results indicated that ‘desire to achieve’ and ‘career advancement, promotion and pay’ were respectively the most important intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drove learning. ‘Marketing the programme more’ was the top ranked suggestion for the organisation to make future delegates want to learn more. In terms of learning transfer, ‘inherent need to share learning’ and ‘support from the line manager’ were respectively the intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that best helped to drive the transfer of learning. Participants identified the ‘provision of better line manager support and buy-in’ as imperative for organisations to help future delegates to transfer their learning better. And finally participants used formal and/or informal methods, specifically ‘practicing the skills learned’ and ‘creating action plans or strategies’ to sustain the transfer of learning and identified the ‘creation of opportunities to share learning’ which was the highest rated theme related to what organisations could put in place to help employees sustain the transfer of learning. The next chapter will discuss the results from this chapter in more detail.

## Chapter 6: Discussion of results

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss in detail the results from the previous chapter and answer the research questions as stated in Chapter 3. The aim of this chapter is to analyse and interpret the results in Chapter 5 in light of the literature review conducted in Chapter 2 to provide insights into the research problem and evidence that the research problem was answered.

### 6.2 Discussion of the results: Research Question 1 - Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to learn?

The research results relevant to this question are shown in Tables 6, 7 and 8 in Chapter 5. This question sought to determine the intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drive participants to learn. Intrinsic factors exist within the individual and refer to doing something because it is inherently interesting (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic factors exist in the relationship between the individual and the activity and refer to doing an activity for its instrumental value, which means that a person will intentionally do something if it is good because it provides the means to acquire something else of value, like getting a promotion or pay increase for example (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Comparing the results in Tables 6 and 7 of this research it is clear that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators play a role in driving motivation to learn although there was a higher frequency of intrinsic motivators mentioned than extrinsic motivators. These results are in line with the literature which states that people are driven by motives specific to themselves and will therefore have different kinds of motivation (either intrinsic or extrinsic, or both) at different amounts (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In this study participants might have been intrinsically motivated to learn because they found the learning inherently interesting or enjoyable (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and those who did not find the learning interesting, might have been extrinsically motivated to learn because of the instrumental value that the activity of learning provided them with (Cinar et al., 2011, Ryan & Deci, 2000). The relevance of the learning content to the job and time available to dedicate to learning could also have impacted on the participant's motivation to learn.

The fact that the frequency of intrinsic motivational factors were higher than that of extrinsic motivational factors are an encouraging result because intrinsic factors are more effective on employee motivation than extrinsic factors (Cinar et al., 2011). Intrinsically motivated people are also more actively engaged in learning than extrinsically motivated people who tend to be more passive (Cerasoli et al., 2014). Therefore, although each individual is impacted by motivational factors unique to themselves, which makes it difficult to predict the type of motivation and the specific motivational factor that will stimulate a person's motivation to learn, focussing on catalysing internal motivational factors to learn will provide the outcome that is required.

Five key themes for intrinsic motivators and five key themes for extrinsic motivators emerged from the focus groups as factors that drive middle managers to learn. Deeper reflection on what enables learning was also obtained and related to how organisation can motivate future delegates to learn more. The results were ranked according to the frequency of occurrences and shown in Tables 6, 7 and 8 in Chapter 5. The themes for each are discussed below.

### **6.2.1 Five key themes for intrinsic motivators**

The key themes for intrinsic motivators that drive learning discussed below are displayed in Table 6 in Chapter 5 namely: desire to achieve; desire to add value, desire to understand and improve self; eagerness to learn; and curiosity to learn.

#### **6.2.1.1 Desire to achieve**

The desire to achieve ranked as the most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (15 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This finding supports the literature which highlights three key motives in human motivation identified by McClelland as achievement, affiliation and status (Cinar et al., 2011) where, depending on the situation, one of the three needs will dominate the other two needs (Hunter, 2012). In this study, the desire to achieve as dominant motive reflects in the individual's behaviour as it continuously drives the individual to want to learn more in order to be better at what they do (Hunter, 2012). The desire to achieve (achievement need) followed by the second most important factor in this study, namely the desire to add value and make a difference (affiliation need), is complimentary as it makes a

person to continuously want to learn more not only in the best interest of themselves, but also in the best interest of the wider team and the organisation.

The need to achieve also corresponds with the second highest level of individual needs on Maslow's hierarchy of needs namely self-esteem needs which is critical to stimulate motivation to learn (Cinar et al., 2011; Hunter, 2012), but difficult for educational programme developers or human resource managers to catalyse because it is an intrinsic factor emanating from the head and heart of the individual (Manzoor, 2012).

Furthermore, people who engage in learning because of their desire to achieve most probably use an achievement approach to learning. People who adopt this approach organise their learning with regard to time and space and probably display characteristics such as high intellectual ability and motivation (Kyndt et al., 2012).

#### **6.2.1.2 Desire to add value and make a difference**

The desire to add value and make a difference was the second most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (14 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome is in line with the less familiar sixth level need on Maslow's hierarchy of needs namely the desire for self-transcendence which refers to the desire to experience, unite with and serve which is beyond the individual self (Vandermerwe, 2014). According to Maslow (1969, p. 4) "The fully developed (and very fortunate) human being, working under the best conditions tends to be motivated by values which transcend his self. They are not selfish anymore in the old sense of that term."

Moynihan, DeLeire, and Enami (2015) also found that the belief that one's work is making a difference increases happiness. Therefore people whose motivation are driven by their desire to add value and make a difference, will be more motivated to learn as well as be more happy employees overall.

#### **6.2.1.3 Desire to understand and improve self**

The desire to understand and improve self, ranked as the third most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (11 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This

outcome support the literature which highlights that learning is a personal process where an individual continually strives to make sense from their learning, experiences, understanding and beliefs (Dehler & Welsh, 2014) in order to understand and improve themselves. Developing competence and confidence and understanding more about self were identified as key learning outcomes for professionals in previous research by Crouse et al. (2011). Learning new things help individuals to improve themselves and will occur naturally when a person feels that there are things that he/she needs to know or understand but do not (Dehler & Welsh, 2014).

People motivated by the desire to understand and improve self, most probably also have higher positive core self-evaluation and therefore have higher learning motivation and performs better than a person with less positive core self-evaluation (Kim et al., 2012). Individuals high in core self-evaluation are also motivated to do well and to exceed expectations which are important motives for learning (Kim et al., 2012).

#### **6.2.1.4 Eagerness to learn**

Eagerness to learn was ranked as the fourth most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (10 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This finding supports the literature which highlights that people are eager to learn when they find the learning interesting, challenging or enjoyable (Cinar et al., 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Employees who are eager to learn and eager to understand the learning task will engage a deep approach to learning which means that as part of their learning they integrate materials from different sources, relate new information to prior knowledge, and apply knowledge differently according to the situation (Kyndt et al., 2012). This is a very favourable outcome for the organisation because this deep approach to learning is critical for adapting to the rapidly changing context within which organisations operate (Kyndt et al., 2012).

#### **6.2.1.5 Curiosity to learn**

Curiosity to learn was ranked as the fifth most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (9 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome supports the very definition of intrinsic motivation where a person takes action in order to satisfy their curiosity by learning something new (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This intrinsic motivation, also referred to as autonomous motivation by Ryan and Deci (2000) drives a person to learn as it allows a person to do so out

of his/her own desire or free choice and therefore autonomous motivation is better than extrinsic (controlled) motivation and positively related to employees' well-being in terms of job satisfaction, life satisfaction and organisational commitment (Kyndt et al., 2012). Previous studies found that autonomous motivation is positively related to a deep approach to learning (Kyndt et al., 2012) implying that middle-managers who are driven by curiosity to learn will adopt a deep approach to learning.

## **6.2.2 Five key themes for extrinsic motivators**

The key themes for extrinsic motivators that drive learning discussed below are displayed in Table 7 in Chapter 5 namely: prospects of career advancement, promotion, pay; learning from other people on the programme; quality of faculty; stay marketable; and reap rewards.

### **6.2.2.1 Prospects of career advancement, promotion, pay**

Prospect of career advancement, promotion and pay ranked as the most important extrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (11 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Employees expect that participating in high-quality learning will enhance opportunities for advancement, skill development and professional growth (Combs et al., 2006 cited in Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013). This outcome supports other researchers who suggest that a person's motivational levels increase if a person believes that desirable outcomes could be obtained from completing an activity – in this case learning (Colquitt et al., 2000).

People often perceive that learning could potentially lead to a promotion or a pay increase, because they have acquired a new set of knowledge and skills which help them to think and operate at a higher level. This belief motivates and drives people to learn even though this perception is rarely realised. This belief works in the favour of organisations because the caveat is if promotion or pay increase is made contingent on task performance (that is enticing people to learn by offering them a guaranteed promotion or pay increase) it will undermine intrinsic motivation, shifting people from a more internal to external perceived locus of causality (Ryan & Deci, 2000) which has a lot shorter lifespan than when driven by internal locus of causality.

### 6.2.2.2 Learning from other people on the programme

Learning from other people on the programme was the second most important extrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (9 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome is in line with the literature which highlights that learning is based on experiences gained in a particular situation (like a learning programme for example) and socially formed (Snoeren et al., 2013). The fact that people enjoy learning about and from each other by sharing their knowledge and views about work and life is most favourable because the ability to continuously learn from one's own and others lived experiences is critical to being effective managers and organisational members (Eriksen, 2012).

Crick et al. (2013) suggest that creating a workplace culture where learning together, and conversations about your own and the team's learning is common place, is one way of increasing employees capacity to learn. This is in line with Hunter's (2012) view that motivation is relational because a great deal of what we do and learn is influenced by our social environment and in our relationship with others.

Furthermore, the need for affiliation with other people also plays an important role in motivation as outlined by McLelland's theory of needs (achievement, affiliation and status) and Maslow's hierarchy of needs (affiliation and love) as groups help individuals to make sense of and interpret the events around them (Hunter, 2012). As one of the participants mentioned: *"What helped was the group themselves, that we had people from different areas within the business and everyone was willing to share their experience and give their views – which helped with motivation. There is always something you can learn from each other which helped us to learn a lot – and we were also willing to listen to each other"*.

### 6.2.2.3 Quality of faculty

The quality of faculty ranked as the third most important extrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (7 frequencies of occurrences were noted). The quality of faculty encompasses their subject matter expertise, passion to teach, and approach to facilitation. One of the respondents from the focus groups mentioned that: *"The facilitators' style was not a case of them just telling us but was an interactive session where they were giving us encouragement to be part of the learning"*. This is in line with Bain's (2004) cited in Dehler and Welsh (2014) discovery that

knowledge is constructed, not received, and therefore the “best teachers” take an interactive approach to lecturing instead of a pure lecture based approach. This highlights that a faculty member’s facilitation approach can enable or hinder participants’ intrinsic motivation and stresses the significance of autonomy versus control to maintain participants’ intrinsic motivation. An autonomy-supportive (instead of controlling) approach catalyses greater intrinsic motivation and curiosity in participants (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and should be pursued by faculty members.

#### **6.2.2.4 Stay marketable**

To stay marketable was ranked as the fourth most important extrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (6 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Participants felt that when the opportunity for career advancement or change of employer arise, indicating that you have completed a leadership programme on your curriculum vitae (CV) looks good. As noted in Chapter 5 this may be due to the current situation in the organisations which are in the midst of organisational review and cost-cutting exercises. Future research could consider and investigate this phenomenon in terms of motivators that drive people who find themselves in highly uncertain environments to learn.

#### **6.2.2.5 Reap rewards**

Reaping the rewards of learning was ranked as the fifth most important extrinsic motivational factor that drives learning (4 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome supports the view that some people are driven by instrumentalities which makes them do something in order to gain something. Driven by instrumental value a person will intentionally do an activity like learning if it will provide the means to acquire something else of value (Cinar et al., 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Two participants indicated that the rewards they reaped from learning (instrumental value) were being able to “*pay for a good health assistance*” and to “*buy things for my family*”. So while the participants were not necessarily satisfied by the activity of learning, they were satisfied by the resulting extrinsic rewards. This motivated them to learn in order to reap the rewards valuable to them, out of their own free will (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Although the frequency of occurrence is small it is still worthwhile for educational programme developers and organisations to note that there might be individuals attending leadership programmes who expect that they will gain something of value if they engage in the learning.



### **6.2.3 Deeper insights on how the organisation can make future delegates want to learn more**

The key themes for how the organisation can make future delegates want to learn more are displayed in Table 8 in Chapter 5 and discussed below. The themes are: market the programme more; show how learning leads to career opportunities; improve the nomination process; communicate the programme outcomes and expectations; they can't - it must be a personal drive for learning.

#### **6.2.3.1 Market the programme more**

Marketing the programme more ranked as the most important thing that organisations can do to drive employees motivation to learn (13 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This factor can benefit from more research as the literature is rather mute on marketing of the learning programme to motivate delegates to learn more. However, educational programme developers often use the evaluation of learning to market the value of the learning programme (Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013; Saks & Burke, 2012). Perhaps the organisation can use the evaluation outcome as one of the marketing tools to market the programme more and thereby motivate prospective participants to learn (Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013). Human resource managers can also use the evaluation outcomes as a marketing tool to attract potential job candidates (Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013).

#### **6.2.3.2 Show how learning leads to career opportunities**

Showing how learning leads to career opportunities was the second most important thing that organisations can do to drive employees motivation to learn (9 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Ng and Dastmalchian (2011) suggest that organisations can make it worthwhile for employees to learn and create the perception that learning yields positive benefits by linking their learning to promotion or positive performance appraisals and outlining this process and procedures in guiding policies. Blume et al. (2010) agree that the most significant transfer of learning gains will result when learning is more tightly integrated into the process and reward system that already matters in the organisation. It is therefore suggested that human resources

design a policy that links learning to desired outcomes in order to increase the motivation and learning effectiveness of employees (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011).

### **6.2.3.3 Improve the nomination process**

Improving the nomination process to ensure it is clear and consistent was the third most important thing that organisations can do to drive employees motivation to learn (6 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome supports the literature which highlights that organisations dedicate valuable resources to training and development (Stanhope et al., 2013) and therefore it is important to be clear about the nomination process and to nominate individuals who will benefit most from the learning programme, to attend – especially in the current economic environment where the organisation’s profitability is under severe pressure and the training and development budgets are tight.

### **6.2.3.4 Communicate the programme outcomes and expectations**

Communicating the programme outcomes and expectations was the fourth most important thing that organisations can do to drive employees motivation to learn (4 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Communicating programme outcomes and expectations prior to attending the learning programme encourage employees to think about their own development needs and interests and help them to identify and set goals for areas which they want to focus on for development (Johnson et al., 2012). Furthermore, when programme objectives are communicated explicitly it informs learners of the desired performance, how the performance will be expected to occur on the job and what acceptable performance will look like (Mager, 1963, 1997 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

Previous research also shows that transfer outcomes were higher for participants who were provided with the programme learning objectives as background information prior to attending the programme (Kraiger, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1995 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007) because the individual is more likely to transfer when they have a clear understanding of what knowledge and behaviours are required after attending the programme (Kontoghiorghes, 2001, cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007). It is therefore important that an employee and his/her line manager discuss and agree specific and important programme outcomes because it increases the employee’s focus on maintaining this knowledge and skills in the work context (Lee & Pucil,

1998 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007). It also helps the employee to set proximal (short term) and distal outcome goals which will increase the transfer of learning (Brown, 2005 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

#### **6.2.3.5 They can't – it must be a personal drive for learning**

The fifth factor, also rated fourth most important, states that there is not much an organisation can do to drive the motivation of its employees to learn because it is a personal drive for learning (4 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This finding is in line with the literature which states that learning is a purposeful and conscious activity where employees are expected to be self-directed and motivated to learn (Snoeren et al., 2013). A person will engage in learning when the person experience some sort of interruption, surprise, frustration, discontinuity or disturbance in his/her current situation and realise that there is a mismatch between his/her intentions and the outcomes at work or in his/her life that can be remedied through learning (Hernes & Irgens, 2013).

This finding therefore contradicts the preceding four findings stated in this section regarding what the organisation can do to drive motivation to learn. It might be that some people understand that the autonomous drive to learn far outweighs what an organisation can do to encourage motivation to learn. But although it might seem that there is not much an organisation can do, other than marketing the programme, showing how learning leads to career opportunities, improving the nomination process and communicating the programme outcomes, the line manager can - by providing continuous feedback on employees' progress and performance (see point 6.3.2.2) - create awareness with the employee of potential mismatches between the employee's behaviour and performance expectations, propelling the employee's motivation to learn in order to remedy the mismatch.

#### **6.2.4 Conclusion for Research Question 1**

The key intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drive middle managers to learn discussed in this section are summarised in figure 4 according to the three sets of key variables suggested to influence learning and transfer of learning proposed by Baldwin and Ford (1988) cited in Merriam and Leahy (2005): individual characteristics, programme design and work environment variables.

Research question 1 showed that intrinsic motivation plays a salient role followed by extrinsic motivation in driving employees to learn. This finding supports previous research which also found that intrinsic factors are more motivating than extrinsic factors (Cinar et al., 2012). Recommendations to catalyse the motivational factors to learn will be proposed as part of the practical Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework in Chapter 7.

**Figure 4: Most important intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drive learning**

Motivation that drives learning		
Elements	Intrinsic motivators	Extrinsic motivators
Individual characteristics	Desire to achieve Desire to add value, make a difference Desire to understand and improve self Eagerness to learn Curiosity to learn	Stay marketable Reap reward
Programme design		Learning from other people Quality of faculty
Work environment		Prospects of career advancement, promotion, pay
What the organisation can do to drive motivation to learn	Market the programme more Show how learning leads to career opportunities Improve the nomination process Communicate the programme outcomes and expectations They can't – it must be a personal drive for learning	

### 6.3 Discussion of results: Research Question 2 - Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to transfer learning?

The research results relevant to this question are shown in Tables 9, 10 and 11 in Chapter 5. This question sought to determine the intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drive participants to transfer their learning in the workplace. Transfer of learning is concerned with the generalisation dimension of transfer (Blume et al., 2010) and refers to the extent to which a person uses his/her knowledge and skill learned from a learning programme in his/her job (Cheng & Hampson, 2008).

A comparison of the results in Tables 9 and 10 indicated that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators play a role in driving motivation to transfer learning, although there was a higher frequency of intrinsic motivators mentioned than extrinsic motivators. This finding is similar to the finding of research question one and supports the literature that people differ in their types and strength of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Also with motivation to transfer reported in existing literature as the most important predictor of training transfer it highlights the vital role of motivation because a person who is not motivated might simply choose not to apply the newly learned skills into practice (Grohmann et al., 2014) whereas a highly motivated individual will actively look for opportunities to transfer into practice what they have learned (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009; Grohmann et al., 2014).

Five key themes for intrinsic motivators and five key themes for extrinsic motivators emerged from the focus groups as factors that drive middle managers to transfer their learning in the workplace. Deeper insights on how the organisation can help future delegates to transfer their learning better were also obtained. The results were ranked according to the frequency of occurrences and are shown in Tables 9, 10 and 11 in Chapter 5. The themes for each are discussed below.

### **6.3.1 Five key themes for intrinsic motivators**

The key themes for intrinsic motivators that drive the transfer of learning discussed below are displayed in Table 9 in Chapter 5 namely: Inherent need to share learning; desire to improve self and others; desire to develop others; openness to try new things; and desire to achieve.

#### **6.3.1.1 Inherent need to share learning**

The inherent need to share learning ranked as the most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives the transfer of learning (18 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome again supports the literature which highlights that learning is a social and collective process whereby knowledge is co-constructed (Snoeren et al., 2013). Because of the relational element of motivation people enjoy sharing their learning with the others with whom they have a relationship, be it people from work or with family members and friends at home (Hunter, 2012). When people discuss and reflect on their experiences, knowledge, and thoughts and assumptions with each other, a shared meaning and understanding develops and their tacit

knowledge is transformed into explicit knowledge (Snoeren et al., 2013). This process of externalisation is what makes the knowledge transferable (Snoeren et al., 2013) therefore it is suggested that the organisation create opportunities for employees (returning from a formal leadership development programme) to share learning and have frequent and intensive interaction with each other.

### **6.3.1.2 Desire to improve self and work**

The desire to improve oneself and one's work was the second most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives the transfer of learning (17 frequencies of occurrences were noted). People generally act on their inherent interest to do something in order to grow and develop (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci (2000) categorised this motivation as a type of extrinsic motivation called introjected regulation. Despite being internal, introjected regulation can be controlling because it pressures a person into performing an action to avoid guilt or for reasons related to ego and pride (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This means that the person driven by this type of motivation will learn in order to enhance or maintain self-esteem and the feeling of worth (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

This outcome can also be linked to a person's need for self-actualisation (the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs) which drives him/her to seek self-fulfilment and realisation of his/her potential by turning the perception that he holds of himself/herself into reality (Hunter, 2012). But before a person pursues self-fulfilment his/her set of lower needs (physiological needs, safety needs, affiliation and love) must have been met (Hunter, 2012). At middle management level it is safe to assume that these needs would have been met, leaving the individual motivated to pursue the need for self-actualisation.

### **6.3.1.3 Desire to develop others**

The desire to develop others ranked as the third most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives the transfer of learning (9 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome is supported by literature on prosocial motivation and altruism. The desire to help others, or to develop others as identified in this study, is the highest level of helping behaviour that is based on internal values and the acceptance of helping for the good of others (Barnett et al., 1998).

Studies on altruism, a human basic need or desires of individuals to help others, have associated altruistic motivation with improved performance (Grant, 2008; Wright & Grant, 2010 cited in Moynihan et al., 2015), positive affective state, increasing enthusiasm and reducing fatigue (Saavedra & Kwun, 2000 cited in Moynihan et al., 2015), and improved moods and self-evaluations (Williamson & Clark, 1989 cited in Moynihan et al., 2015). It also shields against emotional exhaustion (Grant & Sonnentag, 2010 cited Moynihan et al., 2015).

Moynihan et al. (2015) also found evidence that the desire to help others is a strong predictor of current happiness and cumulative life satisfaction. The altruistic behaviour of participants has probably been inculcated through values, their early life experiences and important social institutions they were exposed to (Moynihan et al., 2015). The display of altruistic behaviour is driven from within, consistent with a person's ingrained beliefs, and expected to lead to more sustained effort. Therefore the use of extrinsic coercion is cautioned as it will take away the individual's freedom of choice to develop others (Moynihan et al., 2015) as part of the learning transfer process.

#### **6.3.1.4 Openness to try new things**

Openness to try new things was ranked as the fourth most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives the transfer of learning (7 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Openness to try new things links to the Big Five personality dimension of openness to experience. Past studies have shown that the Big Five personality traits of extroversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness and openness to experience affect transfer motivation (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009).

Preliminary studies by Herold et al. (2002) cited by Burke and Hutchins (2007) reported that openness to experience allows people to get the most out of earlier learning successes and help them to acquire the required skills faster - suggesting that a person's intellectual curiosity enables him/her to explore, accept and adopt new skills. And although Blume et al. (2010) found only a small correlation between training transfer and openness to experience, it seems that the personality trait of openness to try new things is an important factor that drives the motivation to transfer learning for this sample of middle managers.

### **6.3.1.5 Desire to achieve**

Desire to achieve was ranked as the fifth most important intrinsic motivational factor that drives the transfer of learning (6 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Desire to achieve was also the most important driving factor for learning in this study (see 6.2.1.1). As mentioned earlier, this outcome support the literature which states that desire to achieve is one of three key motives which dominate a person's motivation at any given time (Hunter, 2012).

People with a desire to achieve, called high achievers, are fixated with achieving the task because they find accomplishment satisfying (Hunter, 2012). High achievers generally prefer to do things that give relatively quick results, suggesting that they will transfer learning that was fairly easy and practical to use and which will provide results immediately once transferred (Hunter, 2012). High achievers also have a desire for immediate feedback on how they are progressing toward a goal or in terms of self-development which links to the second most important extrinsic factor identified to drive the transfer of learning in this study namely feedback on personal development areas (see 6.3.2.2). Therefore when learning participants have even moderate levels of desire to achieve, in order for them to have a desire to transfer learning, they must be provided with feedback that enables the transfer of learning as soon as they return from the learning programme.

### **6.3.2 Two key themes for extrinsic motivators**

The key themes for extrinsic motivators that drive the transfer of learning to be discussed below are displayed in Table 10 in Chapter 5. Due to the sizeable spread between the top and bottom ranked factors, only the top two ranked factors which relates to social support predictors of transfer motivation (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009) will be discussed in detail below. These two factors are support from the line manager and feedback on personal development areas.

#### **6.3.2.1 Support from the line manager**

Support from the line manager ranked as the most important extrinsic motivational factor that drives the transfer of learning (9 frequencies of occurrences were noted). The support that individuals receive to use their new skills and knowledge is one of the most researched factors and explain the relationship between the work environment and transfer of learning (Burke &



Hutchins, 2007; Cheng & Hampson, 2008; Gegenfurtner et al., 2009; Merriam & Leahy, 2005; Saks & Belcourt, 2006). The role of line managers in influencing and supporting learning transfer has also been widely researched and supported (Brinkerhoff & Montesino, 1995; Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Clarke, 2002 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

Previous studies highlight that peer and line-manager support systems and intervention strategies are the most reliable predictors of transfer (Culpin et al., 2014). In fact the supportive manager behaviours most recognised by participants as positively influencing their transfer of learning are (Lim & Johnson, 2002, McSherry & Taylor, 1994; Smith-Jentsch, Salas, & Brannick, 2001; Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch, & Behson, 1998 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007):

- Line managers involvement in the training;
- Line managers discussing new learning with them;
- Line managers providing them with coaching about the use of new knowledge and skills on the job; and the
- Line manager providing them with encouragement and positive feedback.

Besides line manager support, top management support of the learning programme where the managing director participates in the learning programme on some of the days for example was also found to be more important in improving transfer than other methods like action planning (Foxon, 1997 cited in Culpin et al., 2014). With the vast amount of studies stressing the importance of the role of the line manager in supporting learning transfer this factor cannot be ignored and should be the first action for improvement to be undertaken by the organisation.

### **6.3.2.2 Feedback on personal development areas**

Feedback on personal development areas was the second most important extrinsic factor that drives motivation to transfer learning (8 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Intrinsic motivation is improved by positive performance feedback (while it is reduced by negative performance feedback) because it conduces toward a feeling of competence thus satisfying the basic psychological need for competence (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Previous studies have shown that performance coaching/feedback have a positive effect on transfer motivation (Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006 cited in Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). Previous research found that providing participants with feedback –

as well as reinforcement and remediation opportunities for learning mastery - resulted in significantly higher transfer scores on a work task (Lee & Kahnweiler, 2000 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

Feedback as a form of social support from peers and line managers, can be used to entice employees to use the new skills they have learned, and to communicate the consequences of using the skills correctly or not using the skills (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993 cited by Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Line managers should leverage the use of feedback more in order to guide the personal development and transfer of learning of their employees returning from a learning programme.

### **6.3.3 Three key organisational enablers of learning transfer**

The top three enablers of learning transfer which the organisations can apply to help employees transfer their learning better as displayed in Table 11 in Chapter 5 are discussed below. The first two factors (line manager support and opportunities to perform/apply) have been identified as critical components for supporting a person's skill maintenance (Baldwin & Ford, 1988 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007). The third factor is post-programme follow up.

#### **6.3.3.1 Line manager support and buy-in**

Providing line manager support and buy-in ranked as the most important thing an organisation can do to help employees transfer their learning (8 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Previous research has provided strong evidence on the impact of line manager support on employees transfer motivation (Axtell et al., 1997; Bates et al., 2000; Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Foxon, 1997; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Leidl & Zempel-Dohmen, 2006; Ruona et al., 2002; Seyler et al., 1998 cited in Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). Peer and direct line-manager support has been one of the key reasons often cited for why people have not been able to apply their learning back in the workplace (Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Mathieu et al., 1993; Seyler et al., 1998; Tracey et al., 1995 cited in Culpin et al., 2014). Previous studies also show that people who reported to have line managers with positive attitudes toward training also had more opportunities to apply their new skills (Merriam & Leahy, 2005).

Furthermore, open skills (which refers to the type of skills a person would typically learn on a leadership development programme) which require higher-level of cognitive components and which deteriorates much quicker than simpler closed skills learned, require a more supportive context for transfer to occur (Blume et al., 2010). Therefore, for the greatest impact, line managers should provide pre- and post-training support. Pre-training support can be provided to employees by meeting with them to discuss the learning programme and content, setting learning goals, providing them with time to prepare for the programme and encouraging their attendance and participation in the programme (Saks & Belcourt, 2006). Post-training support include feedback, encouragement, reinforcement, goal setting and providing opportunities to apply newly learned skills in the workplace (Saks & Belcourt, 2006).

### **6.3.3.2 Application opportunities**

Increasing application opportunities was the second most important thing an organisation can do to help employees transfer their learning (5 frequencies of occurrences were noted). It is not a surprise that this factor was identified as important because the opportunity to perform what have been learned has been highlighted in research as one of the transfer barriers (Culpin et al., 2014 Ford et al., 1992; Quinones, 1995) that keep people from transferring their learning. This transfer barrier might also be the reason why intentions to apply (rather than actions) still remain a week, a month, a few months post-programme.

Furthermore, opportunity to apply forms a critical part of the experiential learning cycle proposed by Kolb (Eriksen, 2012). After attending the learning programme (concrete experience) the person makes sense of their experience (observation and reflection) and identifies opportunities for change (abstract conceptualisation) and then tests their new learning (active experimentation) in a new situation (Eriksen, 2012). With no opportunities to test/apply new learning the cycle of learning is hindered and the ultimate goal of creating instrumental cognitive knowledge cannot be realised (Eriksen, 2012).

However, it is important to note that the occurrence of opportunities to apply open skills (learned on a leadership development programme) is less straightforward and may require the individual to identify the potential to use the principles and guidelines learned on the job, and require the line manager to take an active role in offering such opportunities (Blume et al., 2010).

### 6.3.3.3 Post-programme follow up

Implementing post-programme follow up also ranked as the second most important thing an organisation can do to help employees transfer their learning (5 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome is supported by the literature which suggests the use of post-training follow up programmes - such as booster training, buddy systems and sessions to discuss transfer progress - to facilitate transfer (Saks & Belcourt, 2006). The literature also recommends post training relapse prevention sessions which could help participants to develop strategies which will prevent them from relapsing back into their old behaviours and to think about possible situations where they would abandon their newly acquired skills back in the work environment (Merriam & Leahy, 2005). The reported value for people exposed to post training relapse prevention is that they have a greater degree of mastery and usage of newly acquired skills ten weeks after the completion of the learning programme (Merriam & Leahy, 2005).

### 6.3.4 Conclusion for Research Question 2

The key intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drive middle managers to transfer learning discussed in this section are summarised in figure 5 according to the three sets of key variables suggested to influence learning and transfer of learning proposed by Baldwin and Ford (1988) cited in Merriam and Leahy (2005): individual characteristics, programme design and work environment variables.

Research question 2 also showed, similar to research question 1, that intrinsic motivation plays a salient part followed by extrinsic motivation in driving employees to transfer their learning. Another key finding from research question 2, which supports previous research, is the role of the line manager in providing support to employees to ensure the successful transfer of learning in the workplace (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Cheng & Hampson, 2008; Gegenfurtner et al., 2009; Merriam & Leahy, 2005; Saks & Belcourt, 2006). Recommendations to catalyse the motivational factors to transfer learning will be proposed as part of the practical Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework in Chapter 7.

**Figure 5: Most important intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that drive the transfer of learning**

<b>Motivation that drives transfer of learning</b>		
<b>Elements</b>	<b>Intrinsic motivators</b>	<b>Extrinsic motivators</b>
<b>Individual characteristics</b>	Inherent need to share learning Desire to improve self and work Desire to develop others Openness to try new things Desire to achieve	Benefits expected Compliance Recognition
<b>Programme design</b>		Group pressure Support from the group
<b>Work environment</b>		Support from the line manager Feedback on personal development areas
<b>What the organisation can do to drive motivation to transfer learning</b>	Line manager support and buy-in Application opportunities Post-programme follow up Create framework to help implement learning Include in performance contract (key result areas) Learning must be related to the job	

#### **6.4 Discussion of results: Research Question 3 - How are middle managers sustaining the transfer of learning back in the workplace?**

The research results relevant to this question are shown in Tables 12 and 13 in Chapter 5. This question sought to determine how participants sustain the transfer of learning in the workplace and thus concerned with the maintenance dimension of transfer which relates to the extent to which changes that result from the learning experience persists over time (Blume et al., 2010). The factors listed in Table 12 that have been identified as the key methods used by participants to sustain the transfer of learning and the factors listed in Table 13 regarding what the organisation can do to help employees sustain the transfer of learning is discussed briefly below.

##### **6.4.1 How middle-managers sustain the transfer of learning**

The six key things to sustain the transfer of learning as displayed in Table 12 in Chapter 5 is discussed below namely: practice skills learned; create action plan or strategy; frequent use or

reference to learning content and notes; shared learning with others; nothing put in place; and setting goals.

#### **6.4.1.1 Practice skills learned**

Practicing the skills learned on the formal learning programme ranked as one of two factors that are most important for sustaining the transfer of learning in the workplace (11 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Weissbein et al. (2011) propose that the application of skills after training through actual practice (or mental rehearsal) should facilitate the generalisation of acquired knowledge and skills. Weissbein et al. (2011) found that motivation to learn affected how often people practice their skills post training, which in turn impacted the learning transfer performance.

Furthermore, to change one's behaviour takes awareness and practice as simply having a cognitive understanding that you need to change your behaviour is usually not enough for a person to change their behaviour (Eriksen, 2012). Therefore, to further enhance transfer results, managers should allow employees the time and opportunity to practice the new skills that they have learned on the job by adjusting their employees' normal workload which will create more time for practice (Clarke, 2002; Gregoire, 1994; Rooney, 1985 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

Several authors also found a positive correlation with transfer and cognitive rehearsal and behavioural practice strategies during training (Ford & Kraiger, 1995; Holladay & Quinones, 2003; Warr & Allan, 1998 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007). This relates to the practicing of skills during the programme and is important for education programme developers to note and incorporate into the programme design.

#### **6.4.1.2 Create action plan or strategy**

Creating an action plan or strategy was the other most important factor to sustaining the transfer of learning in the workplace (11 frequencies of occurrences were noted). Employees articulate how they want to behave differently in future and how they will use what they have learned in their job in the form of an action plan or personal development plan (Eriksen, 2012). In the case of leadership training, participants will formulate their own plan for how to apply the rules and customise the learning to fit their needs (Blume et al., 2010).

### **6.4.1.3 Frequent use or reference to learning content and notes**

The frequent use or reference to learning content, such as the programme file and notes that the participant made while attending the formal learning programme was the second most important factor to sustain the transfer of learning in the workplace (9 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This supports the constructivist approach to learning which encourages learners to create their own meaning from the range of material and arguments presented to them (Kirwan, 2009). People with a constructivist approach to learning create and construct knowledge, rather than internalise it (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013) which might indicate why they would frequently use or refer back to the learning content in order to understand and make sense of the material based on new understanding or insight gained. Having the freedom and choice to use or reference learning content also places the person at the centre of their own learning experience (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013).

Studies also found that people transfer learning most successfully when they have developed a deep (rather than surface) understanding (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). Deep learning activities like reading widely, having discussions, theorising and linking and hypothesising maximise understanding (Kirwan, 2009). It is therefore preferable that people who use or refer back to the learning material will do so at a deep, structural level (Barnett & Ceci, 2002).

### **6.4.1.4 Share learning with others**

Sharing learning with others, for example the line manager, subordinates, and colleagues, ranked as the third most important factor to sustain the transfer of learning in the workplace (7 frequencies of occurrences were noted). The inherent need to share learning was also identified as the most important factor that drives the transfer of learning in this study (see 6.3.1.1). As mentioned earlier, knowledge is co-constructed as a shared social and collective process (Snoeren et al., 2013). In line with the constructivist theory of learning individuals make meaning of events and activities and create and construct knowledge from the external environment which includes the sharing of learning with others (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2013). The more employees share their learning with others, the better they can construct more insightful knowledge which helps them to sustain the transfer of learning in the workplace.

Furthermore, true learning involves both meaning making and understanding (Dehler & Welsh, 2014). Meaning making requires active engagement with others and therefore by sharing their learning with others and asking questions, people begin to make sense of their learning (Dehler & Welsh, 2014). Their knowledge starts to form patterns as they relate one fact to another and they can see how the whole hangs together (Dehler & Welsh, 2014). Considering the fact that this factor was highlighted for both the transfer of learning as well as sustaining the transfer of learning, it will be beneficial for organisations to create opportunities, and maybe even incentivise employees to share their learning with others.

#### **6.4.1.5 Absence of learning transfer plan**

Despite the factors that enable learning transfer mentioned above, it is worthwhile to note that learning transfer can still occur in the absence of a structured approach to it. Five participants confessed that they did not put anything in place to sustain the transfer of learning, yet they could cite examples of the learnings that they have transferred and are using currently. One of the participants, for example mentioned how he now makes better decisions as a result of his learning even though he did not put anything formal in place. According to Kirwan and Birchall (2006) making conscious decisions about how the training will be used appear to be the key to transfer. However Dijksterhuis (2008) cited in Snoeren et al. (2013) is of the view that the unconscious thinking mode has a much higher capacity for information processing than the conscious mode. So although these participants did not put anything formal in place (like goals for example) they have made a decision, either consciously or unconsciously, to apply some of the skills they have learned in their work setting.

#### **6.4.1.6 Set goals**

Setting of goals was ranked as the fifth most important factor to sustain the transfer of learning in the workplace (4 frequencies of occurrences were noted) and is in contrast with the above finding. This highlights the individualistic nature of motivation which complicates the creation of a one-size-fit-all framework or approach to motivate people to learn and transfer their learning.

Using goals to increase the transfer of learning is well supported in the literature (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Setting goals help a person to develop relevant strategies for goal attainment and motivate the person to achieve these goals by regulating his/her behaviour and directing



his/her attention, action and energy toward it (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Chen & Latham, 2014; Johnson et al., 2012).

Previous research also shows that when individuals set specific but challenging goals (Brown, 2005; Locke et al., 1981; Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Wexley & Baldwin, 1986 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007) use action plans (Broad & Sullivan, 2002; Foxon, 1997 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007), and self-regulatory behaviours (Frayne & Latham, 1987; Gist, Bavetta, & Stevens, 1990; Latham & Frayne, 1989 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007) it has a direct and indirect effect on learning transfer.

A relationship between setting goals and perceived behaviour change was established by Johnson et al. (2012) and they also found that leaders who set multiple goals that are complimentary and targeted at areas that need to develop, were perceived to have improved more across competencies than leaders who only set one goal (Johnson et al., 2012). Goal setting could be used as a post-training intervention in leadership development programmes to ensure that the skills learned in the leadership development programme transfer back to the job (Johnson et al., 2012).

#### **6.4.2 Organisational requirements for sustaining learning transfer**

The top three enablers which middle-managers suggest that their organisations do to help them sustain the transfer of learning are discussed below and displayed in Table 13 in Chapter 5. They are creating opportunities to share learning; creating opportunities to apply learning; and allocating more time to implement learning.

##### **6.4.2.1 Create opportunities to share learning**

Creating opportunities to share learning ranked as the key thing an organisation can do to help employees sustain the transfer of learning (7 frequencies of occurrences were noted). It is not a surprise that the creation of opportunities to share learning is one of the top activities identified as this factor is thematic for both the motivation to transfer learning (see 6.3.1.1) and to sustain the transfer of learning (see 6.4.1.4) in this study. Crouse et al. (2011) found that learning with and from others were the strongest facilitator of learning. The organisation can enhance an employees' motivation to transfer and sustain transfer of learning by enabling them to select a

fellow training partners with whom they can discuss and reflect on their learning and identify possibilities for transferring what they have learned (Grohmann et al., 2014).

#### **6.4.2.2 Create opportunities to apply learning**

Creating opportunities to apply learning ranked as the second key thing an organisation can do to help employees sustain the transfer of learning (6 frequencies of occurrences were noted). The transfer of learning by definition includes not only generalisation of material learned in training to the job but also maintaining the learned material - which is concerned with the sustained use of new methods learned (Cheng & Hampson, 2008) over a period of time on the job (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006).

'Limited opportunities to apply' was found to be the biggest barrier to successful learning transfer (Clarke, 2002; Lim & Johnson, 2002 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007). It has been a consistent finding in previous research that when people are not provided with opportunities to use their new learning in their job, positive transfer is limited (Brinkerhoff & Montesino, 1995; Gaudine & Saks, 2004; Lim & Morris, 2006 cited in Burke & Hutchins, 2007) because people need time, sufficient energy and clear mental space to help them with the transfer (Holton et al., 2000; Russ-Eft, 2002 cited in Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). Therefore people are more inclined to try the new knowledge and skills that they have learned if they are given an opportunity to do so and suggest that the organisation put a mechanism or structure in place that can help employees to put into practice what they have learned during the training programme (Ng & Dastmalchian, 2011).

#### **6.4.2.3 Allocate more time to implement learning**

Allocating more time to implement learning ranked as the third key thing an organisation can do to help employees sustain the transfer of learning (5 frequencies of occurrences were noted). This outcome is in line with the findings mentioned by Gegenfurtner et al. (2009) identifying workload as a significant antecedent of transfer motivation. Burke and Hutchins (2007) cites Clarke (2002), Gregoire (1994) and Rooney (1985) who suggest that line managers must adjust the normal workload of their employees to allow them time to practice their new skills on the job as this will further enhance transfer results.

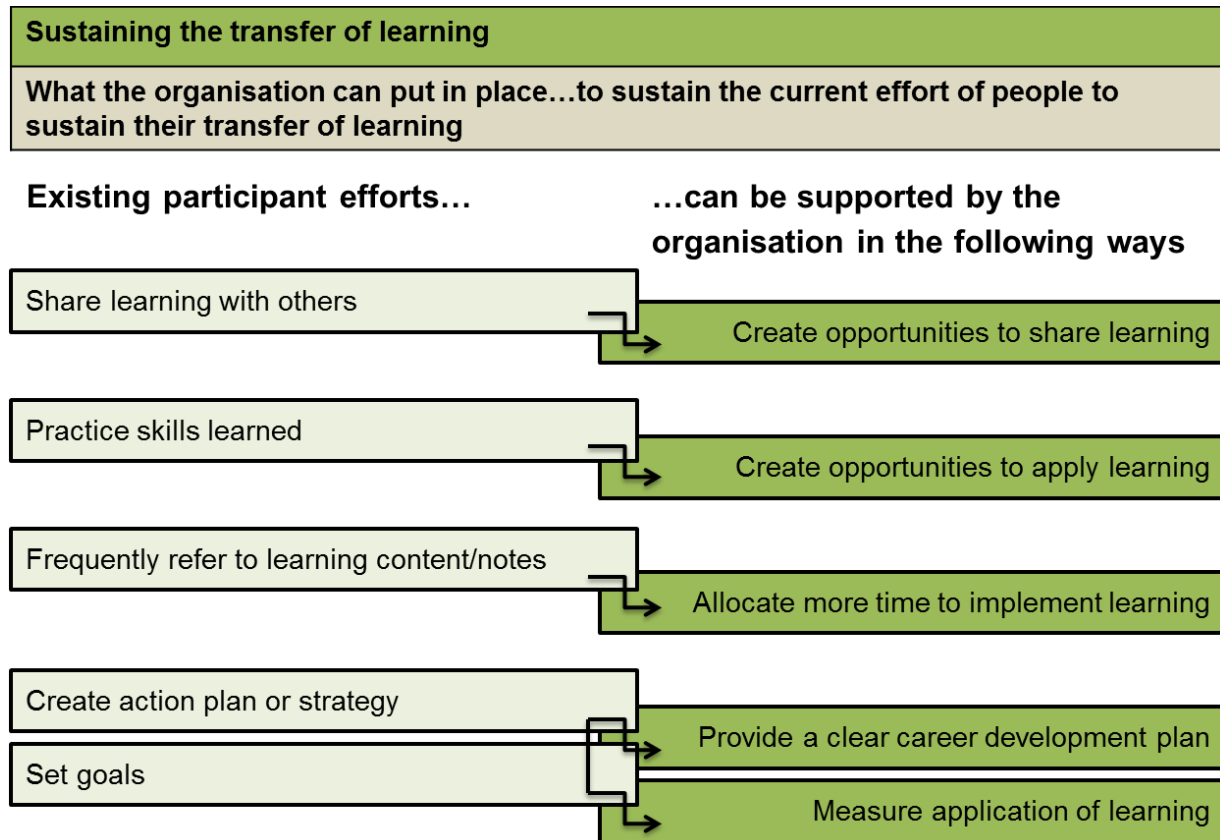
Crouse et al. (2011) also found high workload (expressed as a lack of time) as a barrier to learning and potentially learning transfer. Lack of time has been reported in previous research by managers in knowledge based industries, accountants, nurses and small business owners as a key barrier to learning (Crouse et al., 2011). High and demanding workloads can drain a person's energy (Hunter, 2012) leaving the person with no energy to apply new learning in his/her job. Therefore, as suggested by Ng and Dastmalchian (2011) the programme can be spaced out so that employees can practice what they learned in between the training sessions which are in line with one of the participant's suggestions of extending the programme duration from three to four months.

However, it is important to note that not all employees may require more time to implement learning. As Gegenfurtner et al. (2009) mention the positive and negative effects of workload on transfer motivation differ among people depending on their individual coping and self-management strategies.

### **6.4.3 Conclusion for Research Question 3**

The key strategies that participants put in place to sustain the transfer of learning and what participants suggest organisation do to sustain the transfer of learning were discussed in this section. The findings from research question 3 support previous research highlighting the importance of specifically: learning as a social process (sharing learning with others), setting goals, and providing opportunities to apply learning, and add to existing literature how organisation can support existing efforts of middle-managers in multinational companies to sustain the transfer of learning as depicted in Figure 6. Recommendations to catalyse the motivational factors to sustain learning have been incorporated into the practical Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework which will be discussed in detail in Chapter 7.

**Figure 6: How organisations can support existing efforts to sustain the transfer of learning**



#### 6.4.4 Conclusion

Key findings from each research question were discussed in this section. The key findings support previous research findings regarding intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors that influence learning and learning transfer namely that intrinsic factors are more effective than extrinsic factors on employee motivation; and the key factors that drive learning and transfer of learning are: the importance of line manager support to enhance transfer of learning; learning from others; setting goals; and providing opportunities to apply learning. The interesting findings from this study which expanded our understanding of the motivators of learning and learning transfer are that intrinsic factors derived from the individual are at the core of both learning and learning transfer motivation, and that the factors that influence motivation to learn are different from the factors that influence motivation to transfer learning. These two interesting findings are portrayed and explained further in the Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework in Chapter 7.

## Chapter 7: Conclusion

### 7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the outcomes of this research study according to the main objective. The objective, as stated in Chapter 1 was to develop a practical framework to guide educational programme developers and human resource managers on which motivational drivers to focus on in order to increase the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of middle managers to learn and transfer their learning. It also includes implications and recommendations to key stakeholders based on the research findings and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 1 indicated that organisations invest in learning and development with the expectation to develop a highly skilled workforce able to adapt, innovate, change and perform in a continuously changing business environment (Crouse et al., 2011). Motivation is a critical element for driving high-quality learning performance (Griffin et al., 2013) and learning transfer to meet this expectation. However, findings on motivational factors that drive learning and learning transfer have been mixed and sometimes inconsistent (Blume et al., 2010, Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Therefore a practical approach and understanding of core motivational factors which drive successful learning and learning transfer can still be investigated further as per Bates et al. (2012).

A review of the literature in Chapter 2 showed that motivational theory is grounded in the concept of needs and both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation contribute to and shape a person's motivation and behaviour towards learning and learning transfer (Cinar et al., 2011; Hunter, 2012). Moreover, although the transfer process is complex (Bates et al., 2012) and the predictors of transfer identified in past studies vast (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006) there is still a call for the development of an integrative transfer model (Cheng & Hampson, 2008). Elements from existing transfer models, namely individual characteristics, training design and work environment, including a few of the influencing factors listed within these elements, were used from the literature to inform the Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework which might address some of the challenges from Chapter 1.

Three focus groups, totalling 25 participants, were used to obtain qualitative data from middle managers from multinational companies regarding motivators that drive their learning and

learning transfer. The data was analysed using content and frequency analysis and the results informed the development of the proposed Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework which will be discussed in this section.

In summary, motivation is a process of moving a person to perform certain behaviours (Hunter, 2012). Both learning and motivation are individualised processes as different people are motivated by different motivational factors (Corr et al., 2013, Ryan & Deci, 2000) which make it difficult for organisations and educational programme developers to decide which activities to use to promote and drive intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to learn and transfer learning. The proposed framework in the section below will assist in focussing the attention of organisations and educational programme developers on the key factors to be used to catalyse the learning and learning transfer of middle managers in order to achieve increased organisational performance.

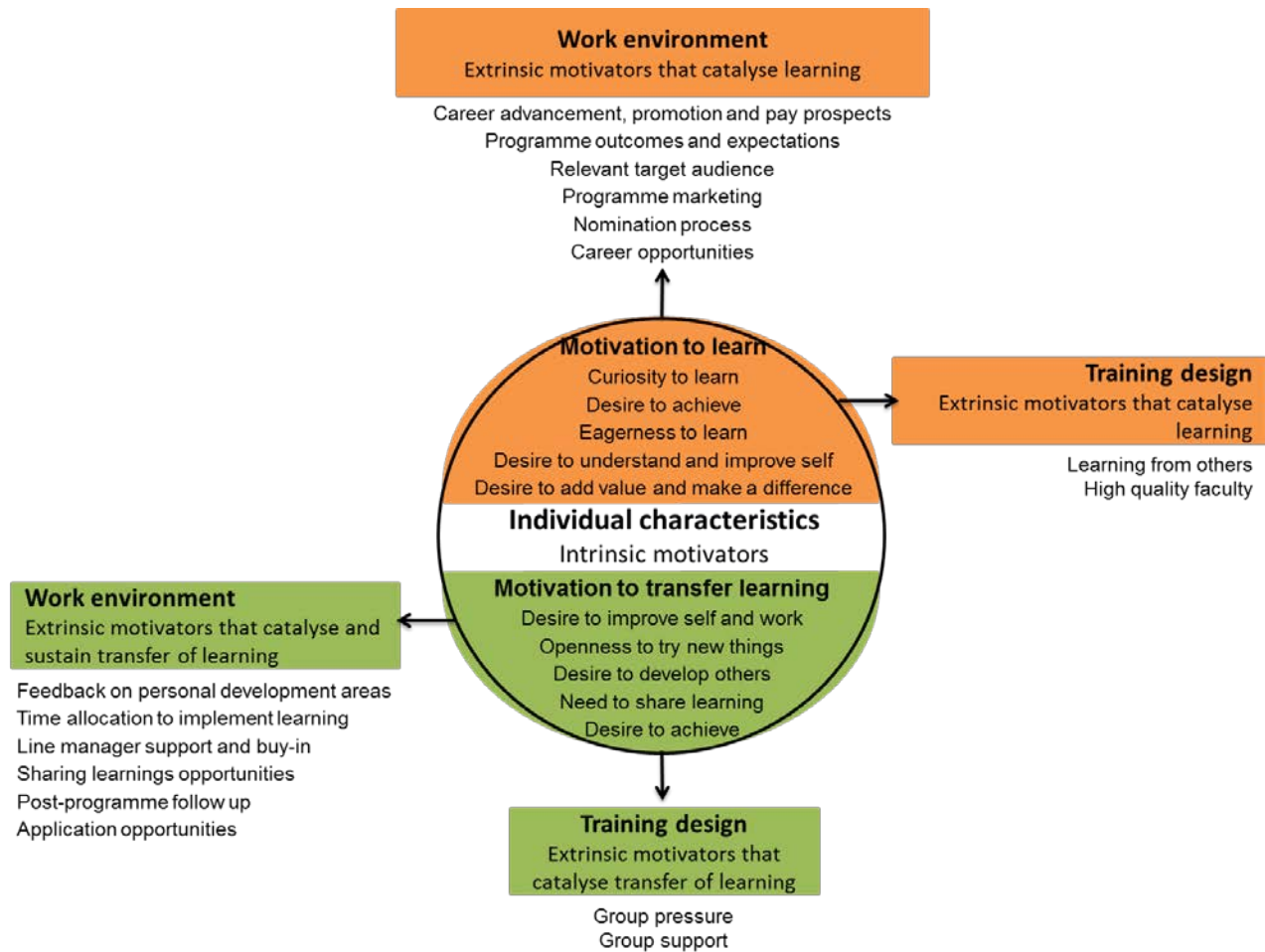
## **7.2 The Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework**

Key elements from the motivation to transfer models found in the literature together with the results from Chapter 5 informed ideas for the Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework. The Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework (Figure 7) was then developed based on the key findings and discussion in Chapter 6.

The key variables that influence motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning namely individual characteristics, training design and work environment have been identified and established as major determinants for successful training transfer in previous research (Grohmann et al., 2014; Merriam & Leahy, 2005) and has therefore been considered as important dimensions for the Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework as shown in Figure 7 below.

Each dimension requires a different stakeholder's input namely the individual, education programme developers for the training design dimension, and human resource managers for the work environment dimension. However, the entire framework must be considered simultaneously by all stakeholders involved to successfully catalyse learning and learning transfer motivation. Each dimension is explained in the section below.

Figure 7: Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework (Author's own)



### 7.2.1 Individual characteristics

Research has identified ability, skill, motivation and personality as the individual characteristics related to learning and learning transfer motivation (Blume et al., 2010). This study honed in on the element of motivation and the motivators that drives the individual's learning and learning transfer. The findings indicated that the individual's intrinsic motivation, that is motivation emanating from within the individual, is at the core of driving learning and learning transfer behaviour. However, motivation is also assumed to be additive (Kyndt et al., 2012) which means that the sum of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is critical for driving and supporting motivation to learn and transfer learning – as suggested by the framework in Figure 7.

The findings also showed that the intrinsic factors which motivate the individual to learn are different from the factors which motivate the individual to transfer learning (except for the desire to achieve). It is therefore imperative for organisations to understand this and not to assume that if a person is displaying one type of intrinsic motivation (for example curiosity to learn) that the person will necessarily also be motivated to transfer their learning. Understanding employees' sources of intrinsic motivation (as listed in the framework) will also be useful for the organisation to manage the process of catalysing additional extrinsic motivation of their employees to learn and to transfer learning.

### **7.2.2 Training design**

Although the training design factors generally discussed in research relate to training objectives, training methods and opportunities for practice (Blume et al., 2010) this study found factors that relate more to learning in a social context, specifically learning from others, group pressure and support from the group. Learning as a social activity (Reder & Klatzky, 1994, cited in Barnett & Ceci, 2002) can result in transfer of learning, discovery of new insights and prompt recall (Dunbar, 1995, 1997 cited in Barnett & Ceci, 2002).

Education programme developers are encouraged to consider the use of the following activities in their learning programmes in order to catalyse learning motivation:

- Include activities where participants can learn from each other considering that adults come to class with a wealth of accumulated experience (Russel, 2006) which they can share with each other.
- Contract and use faculty who are highly qualified and highly rated to lecture on the learning programmes.

Besides motivation to learn, studies have shown that training interventions can also have an impact on participant's motivation to transfer (Grohmann et al., 2014). Albeit that these motivating factors are different to the factors that motivate learning as illustrated by the framework. It is therefore recommended that education programme developers include the following activities in their learning programmes to catalyse motivation to transfer learning:



- Provide opportunities for participants to work in groups which will provide the optimal level of group pressure for individuals to become more responsible for their learning and transferring of their learning to the workplace (working together on a compulsory group project or activity for example)
- Encourage group support amongst participants. Saks and Belcourt (2006) suggest a “buddy system” where participants are paired up during the programme where they agree and contract with each other on how they will support and help each other, hold each other accountable, and provide feedback and so forth during the programme and when they are back in the workplace.

### 7.2.3 Work environment

Previous research has shown that the impact of the work environment on learning and learning transfer should not be underestimated (Merriam & Leahy, 2005). The motivational factors identified by this study and listed in the work environment dimension of the framework are more or less in line with the work environment factors identified by previous studies, specifically the support from supervisors and opportunities to perform learned behaviours on the job (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). Again the motivators for learning are different to the motivators for the transfer of learning and it is therefore suggested that the organisation undertake separate focussed activities in order to catalyse motivation to learn and to catalyse motivation to transfer.

Activities that the organisation can undertake to catalyse motivation for learning in partnership with the human resource department are to:

- Explain the prospects of career advancement, promotion and pay which can result from employees participate in learning and learning programmes, if applicable.
- Communicate the programme outcomes and expectations to prospective participants prior to them attending the programme.
- Nominate the relevant people. Not only must people attending the learning programme be motivated to learn, they also need to be at similar managerial level, with the right amount of past experience in order to share and make a valuable contribution to the group.

- Show how learning leads to career opportunities. A few examples of how previous participants were able to take advantage of available career opportunities as a result of their learning could build a strong case for motivation, if applicable.
- Improve the nomination process. Employees need to know who are eligible to attend a learning programme, what the qualifying criteria and requirements are, and what the process is to apply or to be nominated.
- Market the programme better. Employees might be motivated, even hungry to learn, but are not aware of the learning opportunities available to them due to no or poor marketing of new and existing learning and development programmes and opportunities. A marketing campaign, which clearly outlines the programme outcomes and expectations, explain the benefits of learning (for example prospects of career advancement or how learning leads to career advancement) and describes the nomination criteria and process clearly will cover all the other factors listed above in one focused and centralised activity with the benefit of boosting employees extrinsic motivation to learn.

Activities to further enhance the intrinsic motivation to transfer learning which is already present in employees include:

- Providing feedback on personal development areas
- Allocating more time to implement learning
- Providing line manager support and buy-in
- Providing opportunities to share learning
- Offering post-programme follow-ups
- Providing opportunities to apply learning

Previous research notes that it is not the work environment itself but the perception of the work environment which influences and determines transfer motivation (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). Therefore, a line manager who understands and is serious about supporting their employees with the transfer of learning back in the workplace will generally cater for all the factors listed above. The line manager will guide their employee on which personal development areas to focus on and help with goal setting. He/she will provide encouragement and regular feedback on progress against these goals. He/she will allocate time and provide the employee with opportunities to practice what they have learned, share what they have learned with others and to implement some of the newly learned behaviour on the job. Saks and Belcourt (2006)

suggest training line managers on how to provide support to their employees and to measure them on these behaviours in an effort to improve line manager support in the work environment.

### **7.3 Contribution of the Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework**

The findings summarised in the Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework offer preliminary guidance for stakeholders and academics on factors that can catalyse motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning. Several motivational factors across the dimensions of individual, training design, and work environment were identified and reflect the reality that there is not one 'perfect factor' that can be leveraged to drive learning and learning transfer. However, finding ways to increase higher levels of line manager support in the work environment (Blume et al., 2010) is one of the most promising activities to undertake.

The proposed contribution and value of the framework, over and above the expansion of our understanding of motivators of learning and learning transfer, include:

- It offers a conceptual model according to which the intrinsic motivation of individuals in the organisation can be evaluated against the intrinsic motivational factors identified to drive learning and transfer of learning
- It offers a guideline on which extrinsic motivational factors to enhance in cases where intrinsic motivation is low.
- It provides focus areas according to which line managers can be trained to support their employees and make these behaviours part of their performance contracts.
- As it differentiates between the different categories of factors impacting motivation, it provides a tool to develop specific questions about the influence of different factors, for example, it can be investigated if one factor from a specific dimension has a higher impact than other factors in terms of enhancing motivation to learn or motivation to transfer learning.

Educational programme designers, as well human resource managers are encouraged to take a holistic approach when using the framework to create their strategies to catalyse motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning.

## 7.4 Limitations of the research

The limitations of the research, as mentioned in Chapter 4, include the possibility of researcher bias due to the flexible and exploratory methods used (Welman et al., 2005). Furthermore, the sample might not be representative due to the use of non-probability, purposive sampling making it difficult to generalise results to the population (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

## 7.5 Suggestions for future research

The data analysis unearthed a couple of interesting findings and the following is suggested for future research:

- The study focused on middle managers who have attended a formal leadership development programme. Hicks et al. (2007) cited by Crouse et al. (2011) found that informal learning was used more than formal learning. A similar study should therefore be conducted with middle managers who did not attend a formal leadership programme to determine if the motivational factors that drive learning and learning transfer in an informal setting are similar to the motivational factors identified in this study.
- Future research on motivators that drive learning and learning transfer at different levels of management (for example junior management, senior management and executive management) would also be useful to determine if the motivators are different at the different management levels.
- The sample from both multinational companies is undergoing organisation wide review and cost-cutting exercises. Future research could consider and investigate this phenomenon in terms of motivators that drive people who find themselves in highly uncertain environments to learn and transfer learning.
- This study identified the factors that motivate people to transfer their learning. Future studies can be extended to include an examination of what is actually transferred as a result of being motivated to transfer learning and how effective this transfer of learning is (for example, did it lead to positive results for the individual and/or the organisation).

## 7.6 Conclusion

Motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning are complex processes which are influenced by various factors and differ from person to person. A holistic approach to catalyse motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning is required to improve individual and organisational performance as well as improving the return of investment spent on learning and development activities (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006). Therefore a Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework was proposed based on a comprehensive review of the literature on motivation, learning, transfer of learning and predictors of transfer, as well results from data collected from three focus groups. Key factors that influence motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning were identified and encapsulated in the Motivation-to-learn-and-transfer catalyst framework and implementation suggestions were provided in the hope that it will create a better understanding of how to manage employees' motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning.

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## Appendix 1: Focus group interview schedule

### FOCUS GROUP: Interview guide

Interview schedule adapted from [www.wcasa.org/file\\_open.php?id=1039](http://www.wcasa.org/file_open.php?id=1039) and [www.eiu.edu](http://www.eiu.edu)

#### Outline

- Welcome
  - Introduce yourself and observers (note takers).
  - Thank participants for agreeing to participate.
- Explain the purpose of the study
  - The purpose of this study is to understand which motivational factors drive middle managers to learn and to transfer this learning to the workplace.
  - You were selected because you have attended a leadership development programme targeted at middle managers.
  - We hope to learn things that educators and organisations can use to catalyse motivation for high-quality learning and learning transfer.
- Guidelines
  - No right or wrong answers, only differing points of view
  - You don't need to agree with others, but please listen respectfully as others share their views
- Emphasise confidentiality
  - The information you give us will be treated as private and confidential and we will not associate your name with anything you say in the focus group
  - We ask all participants to respect each other's confidentiality.
- Explain participation is voluntary
  - We will audio record the focus group to ensure we capture the thoughts, opinions and ideas we hear from the group. No names will be attached to the focus groups and the audio recording will be destroyed once transcribed.
  - You may refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study at any time

## Focus group interview schedule

### Opening question

Quick introduction – please introduce yourself and your job function and share what you have learned from the programme you attended?

### Question 1

[Link to research question 1](#)

#### 1. What would you say were the major driving forces, internal to yourself and externally that helped you to learn?

Definitions:

Internal (intrinsic) factors exists within the individual and refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting (Ryan & Deci, 2000)

External (extrinsic) factors exist in the relationship between the individual and the activity and refer to doing an activity for its instrumental value, which means that a person will intentionally do something if it is good because it provides the means to acquire something else of value, like getting a promotion or pay increase for example (Ryan, & Deci, 2000).

### Question 2

[Link to research question 2](#)

#### 2. What would you say were the major driving forces, internally to yourself and externally, that helped you to transfer your learning?

Definition:

Transfer of learning refers to the extent to which a person uses his/her knowledge and skill learned from a learning programme in his/her job (Cheng & Hampson, 2008)

Probes:

- Was there something about yourself that helped you to transfer the learning?
- Were there other people that helped you?
- Was there something in the learning programme that helped you?
- Were there any factors within the organisation that helped you?
- What else helped you?

### Question 3

[Link to research question 3](#)

**3. What did you put in place to make sure you keep applying what you have learned (i.e. sustain the transfer of learning)?**

Probes:

- Did you use goals?
- How did it work for you?

### Question 4

[Link to research question 1](#)

**4. How can your organisation make future delegates want to learn more (considering internal and external factors)?**

### Question 5

[Link to research question 2](#)

**5. How can your organisation help future delegates to transfer their learning better (considering internal and external factors)?**

### Question 6

[Link to research question 3](#)

**6. What can your organisation put in place to help future delegates to keep on applying what they have learned (i.e. sustain the transfer of learning)?**

### Question 7

**7. Have we missed anything?**

### Conclusion

That concludes our focus group. Thank you so much for coming and sharing your thoughts and opinions with us. If you have additional information that you did not get to say in the focus group, please feel free to contact me (Angelique Mare at [marea@gibs.co.za](mailto:marea@gibs.co.za) or 083 296 9093).



## Appendix 2: List of focus group participants

Focus group	Name	Title	Company	Country
1	Makaziwe Mothapo	Manager: Group Tax	MTN	South Africa
	Mark Gartelle	Manager : CPSO	MTN	South Africa
	Aneesa Safi	Senior Auditor: Finance	MTN	South Africa
	Roshinee Naidoo	Multinational Bid Manager	MTN	South Africa
2	Lorna Louw	Principle C&I Engineer	Anglo American	South Africa
	Schalk Lazare	Operational Risk Management Analyst	Anglo American	South Africa
	Lenny Naidoo	Quality Assurance Manager	Anglo American	South Africa
	Neil Rosenberg	Mechanical Engineer	Anglo American	South Africa
	Daryl Kerspuy	Financial Manager	Anglo American	South Africa
	Senzeni Ndlovu	Senior Metallurgist	Anglo American	South Africa
3	Ana Carolina Fortes	S&I Coordinator	Anglo American	Brazilian
	Andja Prelevic	Finance Projects Specialist	Anglo American	British
	Angelique Trollip	Shaft Ventilation Engineer	Anglo American	South Africa
	Anita Smith	Chief Safety Officer	Anglo American	South Africa
	Anusha Arjun	Process Metallurgist	Anglo American	South Africa
	Elsje Bezuidenhout	HR Coordinator Recruitment	Anglo American	South Africa
	John Langa	Section Engineer	Anglo American	South Africa
	Kabo Botlhole	Systems Manager	Anglo American	Botswana
	Manie van Niekerk	Chief Safety Officer	Anglo American	South Africa
	Marcio Barroso	Audit Manager	Anglo American	Brazilian
	Maria Carolina Coletti	Process and Cost Control Coordinator	Anglo American	Brazilian
	Maria Carolina De S Paiva	SSD Coordinator	Anglo American	Brazilian
	Mauricio Jose de Oliveira Junior	Process Coordinator	Anglo American	Brazilian
	Nathan Patterson	Process Metallurgist	Anglo American	South Africa
Shandell Riley	APAC Superintendent - Recruitment and Engagement	Anglo American	New Zealand	

### Appendix 3: Consistency matrix

Question number	Research question	Literature reviewed	Data collection	Analysis	Results
Research question 1	Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to learn?	Hunter (2012) Cinar, Bektas, & Aslan (2011) Ryan & Deci (2000) Manzoor (2012) Woolfolk Hoy, Davis & Anderman (2013) Kyndt, Raes, Dochy & Janssens (2012)	Focus groups  Interview schedule: Q1 Q4 Q7	Content analysis, cluster themes, frequency analysis	Table
Research question 2	Which intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors drive middle managers to transfer learning?	Cheng & Hampson (2008) Culpin, Eichenbert, Hayward, & Abraham (2014) Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang (2010) Donovan & Darcy (2011)	Focus groups  Interview schedule: Q2 Q5 Q7	Content analysis, cluster themes, frequency analysis	Table
Research question 3	How are middle managers sustaining the transfer of learning back into the workplace?	Burke & Hutchins (2007) Kirwan & Burchall (2006) Weissbein (2010) Grohmann, Beller, & Kauffeld (2014)	Focus groups  Interview schedule: Q3 Q6 Q7	Content analysis, cluster themes, frequency analysis	Table

## Appendix 4: Ethical clearance approval

### **Gordon Institute of Business Science** University of Pretoria

Dear Angelique Mare

Protocol Number: **Temp2015-01716**

Title: **Motivation that enables learning and learning transfer in the workplace**

Please be advised that your application for Ethical Clearance has been APPROVED.

You are therefore allowed to continue collecting your data.

We wish you everything of the best for the rest of the project.

Kind Regards,

Adele Bekker